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ART. I. *Mr.* Coxe's *History of the House of Austria.*

[*Art. concluded from p.* 177.]

WE have pleasure in returning to the consideration of this valuable work; and we are persuaded that the close of this article, which must terminate our view of it, will be regretted by those of our readers who attach adequate value to the instructive lessons of history, when aided by the judicious reflections of the historian; and who may not have an opportunity of referring to the volumes themselves for renewed and more complete gratification. We are persuaded, however, that no good historic library will be unprovided with Mr. Coxe's book, nor any lover of this branch of reading be unacquainted with his details.

As we have adverted so frequently to the thirty years' war, we cannot omit to insert the author's comprehensive summary of its consequences, as they affected the authority of the descendants and successors of that prince, to whose unrelenting intolerance it owed its origin and long continuance: propensities which prove frequently not less pernicious to those who indulge them, than distressing in their operation on their victims:

'Under Leopold I. the scanty influence in Germany possessed by former Emperors was considerably reduced by the recent changes, as well in its constitution, as in the situation and interests of its component states.

'The diet, from being temporary, and convoked only at the will of the emperor, was rendered permanent. Leopold had assembled the German states at Ratisbon, for the purpose of obtaining succours against the Turks, and would, like his predecessors, have dissolved the meeting as soon as he had attained his object; but this design was prevented by the princes, who were not inclined to relinquish the privilege secured to them by the peace of Westphalia, of sharing in the election of an Emperor or King of the Romans, and assisting in the arrangement of the capitulation. For this purpose they formed a Princely, in imitation of the Electoral, Union, and extorted from

the Emperor, as the price of their succours, a promise not to dissolve the diet, till these and the other points left undecided in the peace of Westphalia were finally settled. Accordingly, after the grant of succours, the states proceeded to arrange the capitulation; but the electors being unwilling to admit the claims of the princes, no specific plan could be adjusted, and the question was perpetually adjourned. In consequence of these and other delays, the diet was unusually prolonged, and at last virtually rendered permanent by a decree, authorising the princes and states to levy taxes on their subjects for defraying the expence of sending legations or deputies. Hence the diet, instead of an assembly composed of the emperor, electors, and princes in person, became a mere convocation of representatives, similar to a congress of ministers, to which the emperor sent his commissary, the electors and princes their envoys, and the towns a particular or common agent. Thus the emperor was unable to prevent disagreeable discussions by dissolution, or the representatives to decide any question, without previous reference or continual appeals to their principals. Thus the usual tardiness of their proceedings was aggravated, and the influence of the chief diminished, while greater opportunities were afforded for the interference of foreign powers. The right also, granted to the Protestants by the peace of Westphalia, of voting as a separate body, and preventing the decision of a majority in all matters which were considered as affairs of religion, afforded a constant pretext to embarrass the measures of their chief, and enabled them even to oppose the levies of troops and subsidies, by pleading the privilege of religion.

'Above all, the imperial prerogatives were circumscribed by the privilege which each prince and state enjoyed, of concluding alliances with each other, or with foreign powers, without reference to the great body of the empire. This mischievous privilege threatened to reduce Germany to the same situation as before the suppression of private warfare; for the greater princes maintained standing armies, in order to take advantage of the weakness or embarrassments of their neighbours, or subjugate the imperial or independent towns situated within their respective territories. The warlike bishop of Munster, by uniting with Austria, reduced his capital Munster, which had long refused to acknowledge his sovereignty. Erfurth, which had hitherto enjoyed and improved its extensive trade under the protection of Saxony, was subjugated by the elector of Mentz, with the assistance of a French force; Magdeburgh was deprived of its independence by the House of Brandenburgh; Brunswick by its dukes; and the cities of Bremen and Cologne were only saved from the attacks of the Swedes and the elector, the first, by the interference of the Emperor, the last by that of the United Provinces From this mischievous privilege also arose the League of the Rhine, which, more than any other cause, contributed to strengthen the power of France, and became the foundation of a dangerous schism in the empire, which for a time palsied all the efforts of its chief.'

The author next states some of the more indirect effects of this calamitous contest, on the imperial power:

'The internal resources of the empire were considerably reduced by the decline of commerce, and the diminution of the towns, in number, wealth, and consequence. We read with surprise of the splendour and population which distinguished the German cities at the commencement of the sixteenth century, when it was a proverb, That the kings of Scotland would gladly be lodged like the common burghers of Nuremberg; when Nuremberg contained 52,000 souls, Lubec armed 5,000 shopkeepers and porters to suppress a commotion of the burghers, and when Strasburgh and Aix la Chapelle each mustered 20,000 men capable of bearing arms. We are no less astonished when we consider the strength and resources of the Hanseatic League, which extended its ramifications to every country of Europe, concentrated in Germany the trade of the North and the East, and contested the mastery of the Baltic with the united fleets of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. But of all this splendour and strength little more remained than the recollection. The Hanseatic League, from seventy-two opulent towns, was reduced to the three cities of Lubec, Hamburgh, and Bremen, and these were watched and circumscribed by the jealousy of the neighbouring states. The population and wealth of the Imperial cities had been exhausted by the thirty years war; many never rose from their ashes, others were appropriated by the neighbouring princes; the whole trading system of Germany was diverted into other channels, by the fall of the Venetian commerce, the establishment of new sources of trade in England, Portugal, and the Netherlands, and the shutting up of the navigation of the Rhine by the Dutch. The decline of these towns was hastened by the establishment of manufactures, under the patronage of the neighbouring sovereigns, nobles, and states, and still more by the increasing weight of perpetual taxes, which augmented with the diminution of their resources. Their depression was a fatal blow to the Imperial power; for from these towns, which found a sure protection under the shelter of the throne, preceding emperors had drawn their most effectual support against the greater princes, and from their resources and population had derived the means of maintaining internal tranquillity, or waging external war.

'From this rapid sketch of the state of Germany, we may calculate the trifling assistance which Leopold could draw from so heterogeneous a mass, even when not influenced by any common motive of opposition. Still less, therefore, may the Imperial dignity be considered as an essential weight in the scale of Austria, when we recollect, that the majority of the princes and states had not yet shaken off that jealousy and dread which had been inspired by the despotism and intolerance of Charles and Ferdinand the Second; and still regarded France as their great support against the encroachment of their chief. Hence, although the states willingly furnished succours against the Turks, they were not inclined to concur with the emperor in a war against France, and Louis the Fourteenth exercised an authority in the empire, which was more implicitly obeyed than that of Leopold himself.'

Louis XIV. who had dexterously availed himself of the mischiefs which Ferdinand II. had inflicted on his illustrious

House by his intolerance, towards the close of his reign rendered his own name universally odious by copying the inauspicious example of the Imperial bigot, and furnished to posterity an irrefragable proof of the littleness of his mind and the narrowness of his views. The promoter of the arts and sciences exhibited himself as the dupe of priests and devotees, and the model of refinement and polished manners transformed himself into a savage persecutor. Ambitious of universal dominion, he impaired the strength of his own kingdom to a degree which no acquisition of foreign territory could balance, and raised a spirit among his neighbours more mighty to oppose his lawless designs than the most powerful armies:

'Inflamed by superstitious fervour, Louis aspired no less to shackle the consciences and the persons of his subjects, than to awe the other states of Europe. Hitherto he had sullenly confirmed the toleration granted by Henry the fourth to the Huguenots, from respect to the remonstrances of Colbert; but after the death of that great minister, he revoked the edict of Nantz, and followed the revocation with persecutions, which recal the memory of the barbarities exercised against the Protestants in the early stages of the Reformation. Their ministers were banished, their churches destroyed, liberty of conscience abolished, children torn from their parents to be brought up in the catholic religion, every species of severity adopted to prevent adult persons from seeking that freedom of worship in another land which was denied in their own, and the plans of jesuits and monks executed with all the military despotism of the relentless and unfeeling Louvois. The effects of this intolerance were similar to those which followed the fatal persecutions in Bohemia. Notwithstanding all the vigilance of civil and military tyranny, above 500,000 persons found means to emigrate, carrying with them their riches, their industry, their manufactures; and, what was still more fatal to France, spreading throughout every country of Europe where they found an asylum, that detestation with which they were themselves animated by the cruelties of their persecuting sovereign.'

The subtle conduct of the Polish monarch, the paltry behaviour of the unworthy Austrian Prince, and the subsequent ingratitude of the Court of Vienna to the country to which it owed the most signal obligation, induce us to insert the following relation concerning the siege of Vienna by the Turks:

'The rapid and unexpected approach of the powerful army of Sobieski confounded the Vizir, whose troops were greatly discouraged and reduced by the efforts of the siege. At the moment when he had been repulsed in a last and desperate attempt to carry the town by storm, his consternation was increased by the vigorous attack of the Christian army, in which the Polish Monarch and the Imperial General vied in skill and bravery, and their respective troops in coolness and intrepidity. He suddenly drew off his forces in the night, and fled

fled rather than retreated with such precipitation, that his vanguard reached the Raab before the ensuing evening. When the Turks gave way, the Christians burst into their lines, and on the dawn of morning were equally gratified and astonished by the booty which had been abandoned by the enemy. They found a camp stored with all the luxuries of the east, all the tents, baggage, ammunition, and provisions; an hundred and eighty pieces of artillery, the ensigns of the vizir's authority, and even a standard which was supposed to be the sacred banner of Mahomet. The magnitude of these spoils induced Sobieski, with his characteristic pleasantry, to write to his queen, "The grand vizir has left me his heir, and I inherit millions of ducats. When I return, I shall not be met with the reproach of the Tartar wives, You are not a man because you are come back without booty."

'The King of Poland, to whom the victory was principally attributed, received the warmest and most unfeigned congratulations on the field of battle. On the ensuing morning he entered Vienna, and as he passed through the camp and the ruins of the town, was surrounded by the inhabitants, who hailed him with the titles of Father and Deliverer, struggled to kiss his feet, to touch his garment or his horse, and testified their gratitude by marks of affection which rose almost to adoration. With difficulty he penetrated through a grateful people, to the cathedral, and threw himself on his knees to thank the God of battles for the recent victory. After dining in public, he returned amidst the same concourse to his camp, and with truth exulted in declaring, that this day was the happiest of his life.

'The entrance of Leopold was far different from that of the Polish monarch. He keenly felt the humiliations which had accompanied his departure; the clamours and execrations of the populace still resounded in his ears; no honours, no crowds, no acclamations marked his passage; at every step which brought him nearer to his capital, he had the mortification to hear the sound of cannon, which proclaimed the triumph of Sobieski. He shrunk from honours which he knew were undeserved, or which he dreaded to see withheld. With mingled emotions of joy and sorrow, he beheld the works of the besiegers, and the desolation of the city. To return thanks to heaven for his providential deliverance, he repaired to the cathedral, not as a prince in triumph, but on foot, carrying a taper in his hand, and with all the marks of humility. A heart far more phlegmatic than that of Leopold, must have deeply felt the difference between the unbridled effusions of gratitude and joy which had welcomed Sobieski, and the faint, reluctant, studied homage, which accompanied his own return. In the anguish of his soul, he vented his indignation against count Sinzendorf, to whose sinister advice he attributed his calamities and unpopularity, and reproached him with such bitterness, that the unfortunate minister within a few hours fell a sacrifice to chagrin.

'These feelings overcame all sentiments of admiration or gratitude. Instead of hurrying to the Polish camp to pour forth his acknowledgements to the conqueror, he seemed anxious to evade a meeting,

and made enquiries whether an elective monarch had ever been admitted to an interview with an emperor, and in what manner he should be received. "With open arms," replied the duke of Loraine, who was disgusted with his pride and apathy, and alive only to sensations of reverence for the deliverer of Vienna; but Leopold wanted liberality of sentiment to bear an obligation, and settled the formalities of the interview with the punctilious spirit of a herald. The two monarchs met on horseback, between the Austrian and Polish armies. The emperor plainly clad and meanly mounted, stiff and awkward in his address and deportment; Sobieski habited as on the day of battle, rode a superb courser richly caparisoned, and the natural gracefulness of his mein was dignified by a consciousness of his former triumphs and recent victory. On a concerted signal the two sovereigns advanced, saluted each other at the same moment, and embraced. The conversation was short and formal. Sobieski, frank, cordial, and tremblingly alive to fame and honour, was disgusted with his punctilious reception; he cut short the faint, embarrassed, and reluctant expressions of gratitude which Leopold was endeavouring to articulate, and after a second embrace withdrew to his tent, leaving to his chancellor Zaluski to accompany the Emperor in reviewing those troops who had defeated the Turks, and saved the House of Austria.'

It is afterward justly observed by Mr. Coxe that

'The peace of Carlovitz forms a memorable æra in the History of the House of Austria and of Europe. Leopold secured Hungary and Sclavonia, which for a period of almost two hundred years had been occupied by the Turks, and consolidated his empire by the important acquisition of Transylvania. By these possessions, joined to the change of government, he annihilated one great source of those discontents and factions which had hitherto rendered Hungary little more than a nominal sovereignty. At the same time the Turkish Empire lost nearly half its possessions in Europe, and from this diminution of its territorial advantages, the Ottoman power, which once threatened universal subjugation, ceased to be formidable to Christendom.'

Our readers will recollect that, for the victory which procured this glorious peace, the Imperial commander, Prince Eugene, was put under arrest at Vienna, because the battle was fought against the preposterous orders of the Emperor. It is but justice to add, however, that the mind of Leopold, destitute as it was of right feelings, revolted against this absurd punctilio, and placed his illustrious subject higher than ever in his favour.

Mr. Coxe's account of the plans pursued and the measures taken by Louis XIV., in order to secure the Spanish succession in his family, well deserves the attention of those who look up to diplomatic employments. It is very able and elaborate; and if it be chargeable with any fault, it is one

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of which most similar details partake, namely that of wholly ascribing to kings and ministers those circumstances which are in a great part owing to the course of events. We must remark, however, that the history of the grand contest to which this conduct of Louis gave rise, though sufficiently animated in its commencement, appears to us to languish as it advances; and in this part of his work Mr. Coxe is certainly not a Davila: but though it possesses not all the interest of which it was susceptible, and is less finished than it might have been, it strongly exemplifies the inefficiency and imbecility which are the characteristics of coalitions.

Had the confederates in the recent campaigns in Flanders and Holland been commanded by a Marlborough and an Eugene, Britain in the late contest would not have received an accession of naval glory alone, and the page of history would have been differently occupied. The battle of Blenheim cannot occur without fixing the attention of the British reader; who in reflecting on it must be sensible how much the fate of states depends on skill in military chiefs. Able commanders call forth armies, create occasions, and know how to supply defects: but let all else be complete, if the command be placed in incompetent hands, it will avail nothing, but defeat, disgrace, and ruin must ensue. Painfully recollecting our miscarriages in the revolutionary war, into which (with all due deference to Mr. Coxe we say it) we were in far too much haste to plunge, the mind seeks relief by recurring to past glories; and this melancholy gratification may also lead to instruction, if we will take the pains of comparing the different circumstances which prepared the several events. This train of reflection would induce us to insert Mr. Coxe's account of that memorable battle, which gave such lustre to the arms of Britain, if we had sufficient space for a detail which is already so well known.

At a period in which the extension of toleration has been adjudged in this country an offence sufficiently grave to sanction hazardous and extraordinary measures, such as have been productive of distractions in our councils and disunion in the nation, we are tempted to point to a dissimilar policy which prevailed in Austria more than a century ago; being soon also to advert to a proceeding of the same court directly the reverse of that which Britain has lately exhibited, to the derogation of the national character in the eyes of foreigners, and in contradiction to every suggestion of sound policy:

'Generous, complacent, and benevolent, Joseph I. found no pleasure greater than that of hearing and relieving the distressed. He had such an aversion to flattery, that he suppressed even the

compliments generally introduced into birth-day odes: "I come," he said on these occasions, "not to listen to praises, but to hear music." Though educated in the midst of a bigotted court, and under the auspices of a superstitious father, Joseph was tolerant both in principle and practice. He experienced the most heartfelt satisfaction in alleviating the restraints which his predecessors had imposed on his protestant subjects. He banished from his presence those who had excited the former persecutions, and forbade the catholic priests to employ in their sermons their customary invectives against other religious sects. Yet this liberality of sentiment was not accompanied with lukewarmness towards the faith in which he was educated, nor even with the slightest neglect of religious rites.'

In the same spirit was the conduct of his successor, on the occasion of his coronation as king of Hungary:

'In arranging at the diet the complicated and difficult questions of religion and government, which agitated the minds of all parties, in a country long torn by intestine commotions, and among a people jealous of their rights and privileges, Charles VI acted with becoming wisdom and due moderation. He rejected the presumptuous advice of those among his counsellors who represented it as beneath the dignity of an Emperor and King of Spain to submit to limitations of his authority, and readily confirmed the immunities, both civil and religious, which had been granted by the pacification of Zatmar. In reply to the remonstrances of the catholic clergy against the edict of toleration, he said, "although I approve your zeal, and am ready to defend the church of Rome at the peril of my life, yet justice, policy, and my own interest, require that I should not leave my protestant subjects without a ray of consolation."

When describing the close of the succession-war, Mr. Coxe's language is particularly animated; and he seems in a due degree to feel the mortification with which that part of our history must always affect every honest Briton:

'By the disastrous events of five campaigns, and the three desperate defeats of Ramilies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, the barrier which had hitherto defied all the efforts of Europe, was broken through; and the fortresses, the result of such art, expence, and labour, diverted, but could not resist, the tide of war. The army, which had risen like the hydra from its repeated discomfitures, and the generals who had exhausted in vain all the resources of the military science, were driven to the last line of the formidable frontier. That stupendous colossus, which had overshadowed and overawed the world, was smitten to its foundations; the loss of a single battle, or the capture of a single fortress, would have opened a passage into the defenceless provinces of France, and scarcely left the monarch, who, for half a century, had given law without controul, a place of security even within his own capital.

'The continuance of the same vigour, skill, and unanimity for a single campaign would have secured to the allies all the objects of the Grand Alliance, and all the advantages for which they had made such

such numerous sacrifices and such astonishing exertions. But unfortunately their hopes were frustrated by that principle of dissolution which is inherent in all great confederacies; and it is with the deepest concern we reflect, that England was the primary cause of this change, so fatal to Europe and so disastrous to the civilized world.'

The events of the unsuccessful reign of Charles VI. are detailed by the historian with great minuteness, and he gives a full and connected account of that prince's wars and alliances: while, by the aid of the communications of St. Saphorin, and the dispatches of our envoy Robinson, he makes us acquainted with the characters and intrigues of the ministers, and the secret springs of those measures which, towards the close of this reign, ravished from the House of Austria so many of its possessions.

The career of the French minister of this period, the pacific Fleury, is described by Mr. Coxe in more glowing and lofty terms than have usually been applied to it.

'France, at this period, had attained an enormous preponderancy among the powers of Europe, not only from a dread of her strength and resources, but from the character and system of the prime minister.

'Cardinal Fleury was in the 84th year of his age; he was of a circumspect and cautious temper, and possessed the art of winning mankind by an unaffected air of candour and simplicity. His great prudence and sagacity enabled him to distinguish the precise bounds to which he could push his intrigues, and to conceal his designs under the semblance of moderation; his progress was, therefore, more dangerous, as it was silent and unobserved. From temper and principle he was anxious to maintain his country in peace; but, as his great aim was to remove every obstruction to the ascendancy of France, he directed all his efforts to divide, though he avoided provoking, the other powers of Europe.

'In pursuit of his plan, he had imperceptibly brought the Emperor to an entire dependence on France, and had more reduced the house of Austria by his intrigues, than his predecessors by the sword. Although France had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, yet he looked forward to the prospect of dividing the Austrian dominions between the two Archduchesses; and thus hoped to diminish the weight of a power which had hitherto been the rival, and might again become the enemy, of the house of Bourbon. With this view he filled all the courts of Europe with his intrigues, and endeavoured to isolate the house of Austria, by uniting her enemies, and paralising the efforts of her friends.'

The view which the author presents of the state of Europe, at this time, will greatly assist the reader in following the course of events during the war of Maria Theresa:

'France wholly governed the councils of the Porte; and, by means of reciprocal treaties and guarantees, secured a pretext for her interference in the future disputes of the Turks with the Christian powers.

'She had effected an essential change in the administration of Sweden, by removing the ministers who were favourable to England; and maintained the king in total subjection, by swaying the parties which agitated that distracted government. By her influence, also, the Swedes were induced to arm on the side of Finland, and to make an offensive alliance with the Porte.

'Notwithstanding the subsidiary treaty, which Denmark had concluded with England, France endeavoured to alienate the court of Copenhagen from the house of Austria; and the fluctuating conduct of the Danish cabinet seemed to favour her views. With their consent, she dispatched a squadron into the Baltic, under a frivolous pretence; which, parading through the Sound, intimidated the enemies, and encouraged the friends of France.

'Russia, alarmed on one side with the preparations of the Swedes, and on the other kept in suspense by the protracted negotiation with the Turks, was inclined to temporize; and unwilling to provoke the resentment of France, unless a grand combination of the European states could be formed, capable of resisting the alarming power of the house of Bourbon. Advanced in age, and declining in health, Anne was also too much embarrassed with domestic arrangements to take an active or principal part in the affairs of Europe. She had recently given her niece Anne, the princess of Mecklenburg, in marriage to Anthony Ulric, prince of Brunswick Wolfembuttel, and was employed in settling the succession to her dominions, under the dictates of an imperious favourite, who was ambitious to direct the helm of government, after her death, with the same authority as during her life.

'Although Augustus the Third owed his crown to the united efforts of the Emperor and Russia; yet, as King of Poland, he was unable to suppress the domestic cabals excited by the intrigues of France, or to turn the united forces of this kingdom in favour of the house of Austria.

'Germany was divided in interests, and distracted by parties. France had gained many of the catholic princes, and in particular the elector of Bavaria, with the hopes of sharing in the Austrian succession. She also artfully availed herself of the resentment entertained by the king of Prussia against the Emperor for his prevarication in regard to the succession of Berg and Juliers. Charles, notwithstanding his solemn promises, was desirous to secure the whole succession of the Elector Palatine to Charles Theodore, prince of Sultzbach; and while France affected to co-operate in this arrangement, and had even guaranteed the succession, she entered into a secret negotiation with Frederic William, and lured him with the promise of securing to him the whole duchy of Berg, except the town of Dusseldorf. By these intrigues she detached Frederic William from the house of Austria; and, by fomenting his prejudices against the house of Hanover, she succeeded in weakening and dividing the efforts of the protestant body.

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'The king of Sardinia was indebted to the mediation of France, for the termination of his disputes with the Emperor, and for a greater accession of territory than he could have acquired either from the fears or the gratitude of Charles. He was therefore, from these circumstances, as well as from the preponderance of the house of Bourbon in Italy, and the exhausted state of Austria, in entire subjection to the dictates of the French cabinet.

'John the Fifth, king of Portugal, began to lose that spirit and vigour of intellect which had distinguished the former part of his reign; his faculties were impaired by a stroke of apoplexy, and in his character and conduct he blended the extremes of devotion and licentiousness. Scrupulously adhering to the ceremonies of the church, the bigotted monarch paid as much attention to the arrangement of a procession, and to the election of an abbot, as to the most important concerns of government. Hence the whole power fell into the hands of confessors and friars; immense sums were expended in religious establishments, instead of being employed in the maintenance of an army and navy, and Portugal daily declined in power and consideration.

'Spain was involved in a war with England, on account of the depredations in America; and, alarmed for the safety of her colonial possessions, importunately required the interference of France, and looked forward for the active assistance which she was openly encouraged to expect.

'The United Provinces still exhibited the same weak and divided government; alarmed at the increasing preponderance of France, yet without vigour to resist her encroachments; dreading the interference of England in favour of the prince of Orange, who had espoused the daughter of George the Second; and though without any other ally, to whom they could look for support, considering the war with Spain as wholly foreign to their interests. They were irritated against the Emperor for the haughty conduct of his ministers, and involved in interminable disputes concerning the commercial regulations of the Barrier Treaty.

'England, the only power capable of consolidating a grand combination against France, was engaged in the prosecution of the Spanish war, which had been excited by the clamours of the merchants, and the madness of the people, wild with dreams of conquest and plunder. But the illusion had been dissipated by the ill success of their armaments, and by the hostile preparations of France. The nation was distracted by contending parties; the cabinet divided; and the minister, becoming more and more unpopular, was compelled to pursue a temporizing policy, ill adapted to the circumstances of the times. Numerous schemes of alliance and co-operation against France were formed; but they were counteracted by the discordant views of the cabinet, and the inveterate antipathy of George the Second to the house of Brandenburgh, whose concurrence was indispensably necessary for the establishment of a permanent confederacy against the house of Bourbon.

'In this situation of Europe, the Emperor, debilitated by his recent disasters, was bound by France with the most galling fetters. Her

Her numerous partisans were continually representing to him the weakness of his exhausted country, and the danger of provoking the resentment of so formidable a power. His court was beset by her spies, every motion was watched, and Fleury made urgent complaints whenever the duke of Loraine, who indignantly bore this state of dependence, had an interview with the British minister.

'This humiliating subjection chagrined the most upright and independent ministers of the conference; and counts Staremberg and Harrach in particular, lamented the influence of France in the councils of their sovereign. They considered the Maritime Powers as the natural allies of the house of Austria, and looked forward to the renewal of the former connection, as the only means to deliver the house of Austria from dependence, and to recover her ascendancy in Europe They considered the right which France enjoyed to interfere in the affairs of Germany, as guarantee of the treaty of Munster, as the greatest evil to the Empire, and were apprehensive that having been permitted to add her guaranty to her mediation in the treaty with the Porte, she would avail herself of that pretext to interfere in all future disputes with the Turks.

'The Emperor himself felt and appreciated his danger; he regretted the precipitation with which he had concluded the preliminaries at Vienna in 1737 with La Beaume, and still more his acceptance of the mediation and guaranty of France in the treaty of Belgrade. He saw that his ministers had been deceived by the artifices of Villeneuve, and that the peace had been dictated at Paris. He was sensible that the French, by their manœuvres with the Porte, were delaying the execution of the treaty, and was aware of their schemes for the division or dismemberment of his succession. He considered a war between France and England as inevitable, and foresaw the destruction of the house of Austria, should England be crushed by the united efforts of the house of Bourbon.'

From the papers of the British minister Mr. Robinson, Mr. Coxe composes this sketch of the heroine of the war of 1742:

'Maria Theresa had not completed her twenty-fourth year, when, in virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction, she succeeded to all the dominions of the house of Austria. Her person was formed to wear a crown, and her mind to give lustre to her exalted dignity; she possessed a commanding figure, great beauty, animation, and sweetness of countenance, a pleasing tone of voice, fascinating manners; and united feminine grace with a strength of understanding, and an intrepidity above her sex. During her father's illness, the young princess was exposed to great danger, in consequence of her advanced pregnancy; but sufficiently recovered her spirits the day after his death, to give audience to the ministers of state, and to assume the government.'

Having stated the opposition that was preparing against the young Queen, Mr. C. thus briefly observes on her situation and behaviour:

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'On surveying this deplorable state of affairs, the cause of Maria Theresa appeared wholly desperate: attacked by a formidable league, Vienna menaced with an instant siege, abandoned by all her allies, without treasure, without a sufficient army, without able ministers, she seemed to have no other alternative than to receive the law from her most inveterate enemies.'

We deem no apology necessary for here inserting the subsequent detail:

'But this great princess now displayed a courage truly heroic, and assisted by the subsidies of Great Britain, and animated by the zeal of her Hungarian subjects, rose superior to the storm.

'Soon after her accession she had conciliated the Hungarians, by reviving, with the exception of the thirty-first article, the celebrated decree of Andrew the Second, which had been abolished by Leopold; and at her coronation had received from her grateful subjects, the warmest demonstrations of loyalty and affection. Mr. Robinson, who was an eye-witness of this ceremony, has well described the impression made on the surrounding multitude. "The coronation on the 25th was *leste*, magnificent, and well ordered. The Queen was all charm; she rode gallantly up the Royal Mount *, and defied the four corners of the world with the drawn sabre, in a manner to shew she had no occasion for that weapon to conquer all who saw her. The antiquated crown received new graces from her head, and the old tattered robe of St. Stephen became her as well as her own rich habit, if diamonds, pearls, and all sorts of precious stones can be called cloaths."

"Illam quicquid agit quoquo vestigia vertit,
Componit furtim, subsequiturque decor."

'An air of delicacy, occasioned by her recent confinement, increased the personal attractions of this beautiful princess; but when she sat down to dine in public, she appeared still more engaging without her crown; the heat of the weather, and the fatigues of the ceremony, diffused an animated glow over her countenance; while her beautiful hair flowed in ringlets over her shoulders and bosom These attractions, and the firmness of her mind, kindled the zeal and enthusiasm of that brave and high-spirited people, and to them she turned as to her principal recourse. The grey-headed politicians of the court of Vienna in vain urged, that the Hungarians, who, when Charles first proposed the Pragmatic Sanction, had declared they were accustomed to be governed by men, and would not consent to a female succession, would seize this opportunity of withdrawing from the Austrian domination. But Maria Theresa formed a different judgment, and her opinion was justified by the event. She felt that a people ardent for liberty, and distinguished by elevation of soul

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'* Near Presburgh is a barrow or tumulus, called the Royal Mount, which the new sovereign ascends on horseback, and waves a drawn sword towards the four cardinal points.'

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and energy of character, indignantly reject the mandates of a powerful despot, but would shed their blood in support of a defenceless queen, who, under the pressure of misfortune, appealed to them for succour.

'Having summoned the States of the Diet to the castle, she entered the hall, in which the members of the repective orders were promiscuously assembled, clad in deep mourning, and habited in the Hungarian dress, with the crown of St. Stephen on her head, and the scymetar at her side, both objects of high veneration to the natives, who are devoted to the memory of their antient sovereigns. She traversed the apartment with a slow and majestic step, and ascended the tribune, from whence the sovereign is accustomed to harangue the states. After an awful silence of a few minutes, the chancellor detailed the distressed situation of their sovereign, and requested immediate assistance.

'Maria Theresa then came forward, and addressed the deputies in Latin, a language in common use among the Hungarians, and in which, as if emulous of the spirit of antient Rome, they preserved the deliberations of the diet and the records of the kingdom. "The disastrous situation of our affairs," she said, "has moved us to lay before our dear and faithful States of Hungary the recent invasion of Austria, the danger now impending over this kingdom, and a proposal for the consideration of a remedy. The very existence of the kingdom of Hungary, of our own person, of our children, and our crown, are now at stake. Forsaken by all, we place our sole resource in the fidelity, arms, and long tried valour of the Hungarians; exhorting you, the States and Orders, to deliberate without delay in this extreme danger, on the most effectual measures for the security of our person, of our children, and of our crown, and to carry them into immediate execution. In regard to ourself, the faithful States and Orders of Hungary shall experience our hearty co operation in all things, which may promote the pristine happiness of this antient kingdom, and the honour of the people."

'The youth, beauty, and extreme distress of Maria Theresa, who was then pregnant, made an instantaneous impression on the whole assembly. All the deputies drew their sabres half out of the scabbard, and then throwing them back as far as the hilt, exclaimed, "We will consecrate our lives and arms; we will die for our king, Maria Theresa!" Affected with this effusion of zeal and loyalty, the Queen, who had hitherto preserved a calm and dignified deportment, burst into tears of joy and gratitude; the members of the States, roused almost to frenzy by this proof of her sensibility, testified, by their gestures and acclamations, the most heartfelt admiration, and, repairing to the diet, voted a liberal supply of men and money.'

In a note, Mr. Coxe gives the original Latin speech, which he transcribed from the Archives of Hungary.

Our limits will not permit us to state any of the numerous curious particulars relating to this memorable war, which Mr. Coxe's industry and opportunities have enabled him to superadd

peradd to those that are contained in preceding histories.—It would gratify us exceedingly to have it in our power to give an idea of the admirable manner, in which Mr. Coxe details the steps by which the courts of Vienna and Versailles approximated, and those which brought on a coolness and afterward a separation between the former and the maritime powers; events from which such mighty consequences have resulted.

No part of this voluminous narrative deserves more praise than that which exhibits the causes of the seven years' war, with the conduct and views of the parties who were engaged in it; and though numerous writers of considerable eminence have given accounts of this remarkable contest, we know not any more correct, methodical, and luminous, than that which is supplied in these volumes, nor does any portion of the work appear to have been more directly drawn from original sources.—Kaunitz and his mistress seem to have calculated on every thing except the extraordinary qualities of the Prussian monarch, and the uncertain play of fortune.

From the above praise, however, we must except the author's statement of the behaviour of England towards the Great Frederic at the beginning of the present reign. The dishonourable conduct of the Favourite at our Court towards the Northern hero is palliated, and his insidious proposals to the Russian and Austrian ministers are feebly and unsatisfactorily controverted. The dismissal of the great Lord Chatham, then Mr. Pitt, is also rather justified than reprobated; and this measure is never once held up as the commencement of those sinistrous councils which sacrificed the fair fruits of a glorious war, and which have advanced with an inauspicious consistency: occasioning first the loss of our colonies, and subsequently the incredible aggrandizement of our eternal rival. As the authority for the sentiments which he has here introduced, this respectable historian refers to Mr. Adolphus!

To proceed. The curious reader will feel very much indebted to Mr. Coxe for his narrative of the reign of Joseph II.; in which his account of the man and of the potentate appears to us to be equally distinguished by fidelity and discrimination. We cannot ascribe the same merit to all the parts of his history of Leopold: but we refer almost solely to those which detail the progress of the French revolution. If we are allowed to form a judgment from the sketch of that awful visitation which this volume presents, we give it as our opinion that the author has never rightly appreciated that event, nor discerned the conduct most proper to be followed

in

in that difficult juncture. It also appears to us that his information on the subject is partial and scanty; and indeed his own references shew that he has overlooked numerous sources whence important aid might have been derived, and has relied too implicitly on those which he consulted. The reader who should confine himself to the history of Lord Clarendon, admirable as it is, would form a very erroneous and imperfect notion of our troubles; and if he would fairly judge of them, he must accompany the perusal of the noble historian with that of Whitelock and Ludlow, and the state-papers collected by Rushworth. This slender portion in the conclusion of the present work affords more scope for criticism, and more matter for controversy, than perhaps all the other parts of this massy production taken together; and the author would have steered clear of this charge, had he finished his history with the reduction of the Netherlands by Leopold.

We have had so many opportunities of bearing our testimony to the merits and claims of Mr. Coxe, that in terminating our present article we need only to add that the reputation for industry, fidelity, fairness, and judgment, which he had established by his former productions, will be in no degree diminished but rather enhanced by the history before us. Future annalists, who may have occasion to go over any part of the immense space which this enterprizing and laborious writer has traversed, will find in him (with very slight exceptions) a faithful and valuable guide. His extensive acquaintance with German authors, the access which he has had to a variety of important state-papers, and the diligent use which he has made of them, impart a value and an interest to his volumes, of which a perusal of them can alone furnish an adequate idea. To such as are ambitious of attaining comprehensive and correct views of modern times, we recommend not merely the perusal, but the sedulous study, of Mr. Coxe's History of the House of Austria.

As we deem this narrative to derive a principal share of its merit from its tendency to point out the mischievous operation and hateful nature of bigotry, we shall not close it without inserting a short extract which we before promised, but which we overlooked in its proper place:

'The wisest and best digested part of the plans of Joseph II., and that which reflects the highest honour on his memory, and which fortunately has continued longer than his other innovations, is the Edict of Toleration. By this memorable Edict, issued on the 13th of October, 1781, and afterwards enlarged at divers intervals, Joseph granted to all members of the Protestant and Greek churches, under the denomination of Non-catholics, the free exercise of their religion.

religion. *He declared all Christians of every denomination equally citizens, and capable of holding all charges and offices in every department of state*; he permitted every community consisting of 3,000 souls, resident in any town, to build a church, provided they could establish a permanent fund for the support of a preacher and the relief of the poor; and he ordered a new translation of the Bible to be made in the German tongue. On the Jews he also conferred many liberal privileges, and granted to them the right of exercising all arts and trades, following agriculture, and freely pursuing their studies at the schools and in the universities.'

Mr. Coxe stamps on this measure the distinction to which it is so well intitled; and he informs us, in his account of the next reign, that Leopold, who set aside so many of his brother's regulations, 'retained and even extended the edict of toleration, and improved the regulations which had been introduced for the relief of the Jews.'—'By these wise and lenient measures, (continues the historian,) he gained the affections of his subjects, and soon restored tranquillity in most parts of his extensive dominions.' We cannot but here repeat the remark which we lately made, that it would seem that, with the exceptions of Spain and Portugal, Great Britain is the only country in which the civil rights of men are affected by their religious opinions! Jo.

ART. II. *Prize Essays and Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland.* To which is prefixed an Account of the principal Proceedings of the Society, from 1799 to 1803, and from 1803 to 1807, by Henry Mackenzie, Esq., one of the Directors. Vols. II. and III. 8vo. 1l. 3s. Cadell and Davies, Murray, &c.

SINCE our notice of the first volume of these Transactions, (see M. R. Vol. 34. N. S. p. 46,) we learn that the members of the Highland Society have increased from about 500 to nearly 1000 members, including some of the most respectable inhabitants of North Britain. From this rapid augmentation, it may fairly be presumed that the spirit of improvement is generally diffused, and that the patriotic objects of this institution are warmly espoused. 'The Highland Society (says Mr. Mackenzie,) has been, not unaptly, compared to one of our own native rivers, which has its rise indeed in the Highlands, but which, increasing as it flows, fertilizes and improves lowland districts, at a distance from those less cultivated regions whence it originally sprang.' Though this association retains its original name, and professes to direct its primary attention to the region from which it receives its appellation, it has now enlarged its plan, and avows that it has

assumed the character and functions of *an Agricultural Society for Scotland.* In this view, therefore, we shall henceforwards consider it, and be happy to record its exertions and announce its success. Some expectations may warrantably be raised on such a combination of rank, property, and talents; and, as the annual grant of Government will probably be increased by the liberality of its opulent members, we may presume that the Northern part of the island will derive essential benefits from this establishment.

In the introduction to the second Volume, Mr. Mackenzie reports that the attention of the Society had been directed to procuring proper *Seed Corn* and *Early Crops of Potatoes*, to the prevention of *Emigration*, and to the improvement of lands subject to the servitude *of Thirlage*; that it had also, for the encouragement of literature, patronized a *Gaelic Grammar*, and a *new Gaelic edition of the Scriptures* and *Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language;* and that, in the Arts, it had encouraged the inventor of a *Life-Boat* for saving persons exposed to shipwreck. We are also made acquainted with the Correspondence and Communications with other Societies.

The prefatory pages of the third volume offer a classification of the principal objects prosecuted by the Society under the heads of *Public Works*, *Fisheries*, *Agriculture*, and *Manufactures.* Of the first, including the *Caledonian canal*, and the construction of roads and bridges, we shall take no other notice than to observe that these schemes are recommended not merely for their own sake, but as checks to Emigration by affording employment; for it is confessed that 'the situation of the country (Highlands) in its present state, defective to a certain degree in the means of subsistence and opportunities for industry, induces or obliges persons to leave it.' Not desirous, however, of retaining a superfluous population, and willing to afford protection to such as were obliged to emigrate, against the arts and cruelties of those who made a trade of enlisting emigrants for the colonies and seducing them by visionary prospects, the Society kindly recommended some legislative regulations; obliging ship-masters, who took on board emigrants, to make certain provisions for their health and comfortable subsistence during the passage. By this act, and by other measures of Government tending to employ the surplus population, such as inviting them by bounties into the army and navy, a pause in emigration has been produced.

On the improvement of the *Fisheries*, much inquiry and discussion have taken place in a committee appointed for that special purpose; and the full amount of the information collected

lected on that subject has been transmitted to Government, on the basis of which a bill has been framed, though not yet introduced into Parliament.

Among the objects comprehended in the class of *Agriculture*, Mr. M. specifies the introduction of sheep-farming—improvement of peat-mosses—cultivation of native grasses and willows—stapling of wool—breeding of black cattle—and the encouragement of emulation among ploughmen.—The *Manufactures*, or inventions relative to agriculture, are the Small Threshing Mill and the Reaping Machine.—Under the head of *Celtic Literature and Antiquities*, we find noticed a Gaelic Dictionary; —two antient harps, one of which was presented to the ancestor of the present possessor by Queen Mary when she was on a hunting excursion in the Highlands;—and the Report of the Committee appointed to inquire into the nature and authenticity of the Poems ascribed to Ossian. On this last subject we shall have occasion elsewhere to speak.

The first prize essay, in Vol. II. by the Rev. Dr. Walker, Professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh, is appropriated to the subject of *Peat*, and contains 'an account of its origin, of its chemical principles and general properties, its properties as a manure, and as a manured soil, the different methods of its cultivation, its usefulness in plantation and gardening, and as fuel.' In this ingenious philosophical treatise, which occupies 137 pages, various details are first given to ascertain the origin of peat; and to prove that all peat consists of vegetable substances, more or less putrid, formed by the decay of trees and plants in the places in which it is at present situated, and accidentally mixed with earth and other mineral matter. From the facts adduced to shew that peat-strata are formed by the decay of antient woods, we select one:

'There is a curious illustration of this subject given by the old Earl of Cromartie, a nobleman well known for his erudition and abilities. It is contained in a letter, written by him in the year 1711*, to Sir Hans Sloane. He there relates that, in the year 1651, when he was 19 years of age, he accompanied his father, on the family estate, in the parish of Lochbroom, in West Ross. He there saw a small plain covered with a standing wood of fir trees, but so old that they had neither leaves nor bark. Being in the same place about 15 years afterwards, there was not a tree to be seen, the plain was covered with green moss, by the overthrow of the old trees and the stagnation of moisture, descending from the hill. But in the year 1699, he found the whole piece of ground converted into a peat-moss,

'* Philosophical Transactions, Vol. xxvii. anno 1711. p. 256.'

from which the country people dug their fuel: a striking instance of the generation of peat from the decay of an old wood.'

Dr. Walker informs the reader that peat is peculiar to temperate and cold climates, and that strata of this substance do not appear to exist any where within 35 degrees of the Equator.—In order to explain the properties of this half-putrified vegetable substance, much chemical discussion is employed. Fossil bitumens are attributed, like peat, to a vegetable origin; and, to finish the climax, 'all the inflammable matter in the globe is supposed to have been derived ultimately from the sun.'

We cannot do justice to this instructive and amusing paper, by following the author *seriatim* through his explanations, 1st, of the antiseptic quality of peat, 2dly, of its power of resisting water, 3dly, of its properties as a soil, and 4thly, as a manure and manured soil: but we recommend it to the perusal of those who are desirous of ample information on this subject.—Of the antiseptic quality of peat or moss water, Dr. W. adduces many instances; among which, he quotes a circumstance that occurred in Captain Cook's voyage, and which, as affording an useful hint to our Navy, we shall also record:

'That celebrated navigator had to water his ship, on the coast of the Terra del Fuego. The only water he could obtain, was from a brook, the water of which was of a reddish hue, like that which runs from the turf bogs in England. This, no doubt, was moss water. He was, at first, suspicious of its quality, and used it sparingly. But, after having it long aboard and in warm climates, it proved the best water he took in during the whole voyage. It would appear, from his account, that it never became putrid. And, it is highly probable, that moss water, or water artificially impregnated with peat, would be more salutary, and remain longer unchanged, especially in the hot latitudes, than any other river or standing water whatever.'

To the antiseptic quality of peat-water, ascribed to the bitumen which it contains, is attributed the salubrity of the air throughout the extensive mosses in Scotland and the turf-bogs in Ireland; while all other places abounding with stagnant water, as fenny soils, are remarkably unwholesome.

Dr. W. does not accede to the high opinion which has been entertained by some persons, respecting the value of *Peat-ashes* as a manure. 'They contain not (he observes) a particle of fixed vegetable alkali, with which they have vainly been supposed to abound. They contain nothing but the mere fixed earthy parts of the vegetable substance, which,

though small in quantity*, is no better than so much calcined clay.'—For the uses of peat as a fuel, its application as a manure, and its management as a soil, we must refer to the Essay; which, on each of these points, merits consultation.

A subjoined communication on the same subject by Lord Meadowbank contains '*Directions for making Compost Dunghills from Peat-moss*, which have been used at Meadowbank in Mid-Lothian, in raising the last six Crops; and been found to stand Cropping, whether by Corn of all sorts, Hay, Pasture, Tares or Potatoes; and whether on Loams, thin Clays, or Gravel, at least equally well with Farm-yard Dung.'—This paper does not admit of abridgment; which may be observed also of the subsequent *Account of the process of burning Lime with Peat*, by Mr. Jonathan Radcliff, at Cumbertrees, Annandale.

With the *Quid faciat lætas segetes?* we now combine the *Quæ cura Boum?* being next presented by Dr. Walker with a Dissertation *on the Cattle and Corn of the Highlands.* This Essay, divided into five sections, treats of the soil and climate of the Highlands,—of the state of the cattle in that district during the winter,—of the grasses and green crops, proper to be cultivated there,—of the kind of grain proper to be raised,—and of the change of seed corn, requisite in that country.

It is remarked that the arable grounds in the Highlands consist chiefly of hazel mould, sufficiently adapted to the production of any field crop that is raised in England; and that, though the mildness of the weather on the coasts in winter is greater than in England, this advantage is counterbalanced by the want of those degrees of heat in summer which prevail in the south, by a less early autumn, and by the frequency and violence of the winds and rains; yet that the heat of summer is sufficient to ripen the ordinary white crops, viz. oats, bear, and rye. As the mildness of the winter enables the grazing animals to run abroad through the whole of this season, without receiving a mouthful of dry forage, the Highland countries are well adapted to the breed of cattle, which may indeed be considered as their staple produce: but the supply of food is in general scanty, and the great desideratum is an increase of the quantity of sustenance. Dr. W. points out a variety of methods for accomplishing this object, both with respect to crops of dry provender and those of green forage; and he is of opinion that the adoption of his advice would prevent the heavy losses sustained by the death of

* 'The ashes from a load of flaw-peat, may sometimes be contained in a hat.'

cattle, that the breed would be improved, and that the produce of every farm would be increased. His subsequent hints certainly merit attention in the district to which they apply: but, as they would not be generally interesting, we shall not here detail them.

Observations on the Economy of Black Cattle Farms under a breeding Stock, by Duncan Stewart, Kintyre. The author here gives directions for increasing the stock of winter food, for the management of the dairy, and for the prevention and cure of the diseases incident to black cattle.

The next paper, *On Corns* (Corn), by Rob. Sommerville, Surgeon in Haddington, adverts to the injury which crops of oats often sustain in their approach to maturity, from fogs or light rains succeeded by frost; and it affords information to the Highland farmer, which will assist him in ascertaining how far such ill-filled and ill-ripened grain will serve for seed.

Lord Dunsinnan next communicates some brief remarks on the *Obstacles to the Improvement of the Highlands*, which will no doubt receive attention from the Society.

In merely transcribing the title of the next essay, by the above mentioned Mr. Sommerville, we shall afford our readers a sufficient insight into its substance: '*On the propriety or impropriety of burning Heath grounds, for sheep pasture. The practicability of gradually rooting out Heath, and raising in its stead a greater portion of grass by well-conducted burning; the nature of the soil where it is most beneficial, and of that also where it is improper to burn Heath. The situation and exposure of the ground most proper for this purpose, the length of time during which the ground should be herded, and the attention requisite after burning, to prevent the tender grass from being injured by too early eating.*'

A paper on *Manufactures*, by Angus Macdonald, recommends the introduction of the woollen and linen manufactures into the Highlands; since the hills are adapted to the maintenance of sheep, as the vallies and dales are to the growth of flax, and since the industrious character of the inhabitants is favourable to such a measure. At the end of this essay, the Highland householder is advised to keep five or six hives of bees, as 'it is reckoned that a hive of bees is more profitable than a cow.' The inhabitants of the southern parts of the island will receive this information with some surprise.

A *Plan of an inland Village* for the accommodation of manufacturers, by the Rev. Robert Rennie, Minister of Kilsyth, *with Remarks on the plan* by Col. Dirom of Mount Annan, form the subject of two papers, each of which is illustrated

by a map, necessary to the explanation of the schemes proposed. It is lamented that Manufactures should operate to the injury of morals; and in a subjoined note, some ideas are suggested for the prevention of this usual consequence.

To that valuable fish, the *Herring*, three papers are assigned, the first of which is intitled *Extracts from "An Essay on the Natural, Commercial, and Economical History of the Herring,"* by the Rev. Dr. Walker.—Many curious particulars are collected by this learned Professor, for the elucidation of the natural history of the Herring, under the heads *species*, *spawning*, *size*, *food*, *residence*, *shoals*, and *migrations*. From this part of the essay, we must purloin a few paragraphs:

'Most fishes, and especially those of the gregarious kind, are liable to migrations at different seasons of the year, and they migrate chiefly for two reasons; the pursuit of sustenance, and the purpose of propagation. It is evident that the herrings receive little or no sustenance upon the British shores; that to deposit their spawn is the sole purpose of their appearance; and that they immediately retreat, after having accomplished that process of nature.

'It has always been, and is still a matter of some uncertainty, to what precise region of the ocean the herrings retire when they abandon the shores of Britain. It is thought by some, that after the herrings have spawned on our shore, they return to the deeps, but not far distant from our coasts, where they remain at the bottom till they return the following season. But they have never been discovered in this situation; and no herrings have ever been known upon our shore except what proceed from the northward of the Shetland islands, from whence they pay their regular annual visit to the coasts of Scotland.

'That all the herrings on the British coasts retire in February and March towards the North sea, is pretty evident, but to what tract of that sea, and how far north they proceed, is not exactly known. They have never been seen by any of our numerous whale fishers any where near the coasts of Greenland, and it is probable that they never go so far north. It is a current, but erroneous opinion among our fishers, that the herrings breed in the great North sea. But that sea is too deep for the breeding of any fish, and it is evident that the sole design of the herrings in their visit to Britain is to deposit their spawn in the shallow water upon its coasts.

'The herrings approach the northern extremity of the Shetland islands in one immense body about the beginning of June: soon after which, they separate into several different divisions. One part ranges along the eastern coast of Zetland; another pursues its course between Zetland and the Orkney Islands; and another passes from the west through the Pentland Frith. These three divisions form all the shoals which appear on the east coast of Britain, from Caithness to Norfolk. The above great body of herrings coming from the north-west, does also separate itself into two other great divisions at Europa Point, the northern extremity of the Lewis. The first of these

passes along the western coasts of the Long Island and the west of Ireland.

'The other, which is the most considerable, enters the Minch between Europa Point and Cape Wrath, and spreads itself in detached shoals through the Deucaledonian sea. Pursuing its course still farther south, it enters the Irish sea between the coast of Antrim and the Promontory of Cantyre. From thence different shoals are detached to Lochfyne and other lochs in the Frith of Clyde, to the coasts of Ayrshire, to the Isle of Man, to the Solway Frith, to the eastern coasts of Ireland, and in the end of the season reach even to the west coasts of England and Wales.'—

'During the months of July, August, and September, the herrings are easily scared and diverted from the place they occupy by a number of vessels or boats; by fishing in the day time, or even by moon-light; by throwing stones from the boats; and especially by any sudden and violent alteration in the weather. But in November when they come to embay and take up their ground for the purpose of spawning, they are not so easily deterred; and keep their station though the weather may be tempestuous, and though a great number of vessels and boats are employed in the fishery.'—

'The herring is a fish entirely confined to the waters of the ocean, and never enters fresh water rivers, nor appears even where the waters are brackish. It is therefore an error to presume that the herring is ever found in lakes or rivers of fresh water. It is, indeed, commonly reported that herrings are found in Loch-heck, a fresh water lake in the country of Cowal; but the fish there supposed to be the herring is probably the Powan, (Salmo *Lavretus*, Linn.) of Lochlomond, or the Vendace of Lochmaben: which in that country is frequently called a fresh water herring.

'*As food.*—No bad consequences have ever been known to arise from the use of fresh herrings as a diet, unless when eaten to excess; and even this seldom happens. Yet a surfeit of fresh herrings, like that of any other wholesome food, must no doubt be followed with bad effects. Whenever fresh herrings are cheap and in great plenty, there is certainly no fish in which the people of Scotland indulge so freely or eat in so great a quantity. During some winters, of late, they were so cheap in Edinburgh as to be sold for twelve, fifteen, and even eighteen for one penny. The labouring and poor people did then feed upon them immoderately, and yet no hurtful effects were ever known to proceed from their use, as they certainly form one of the most wholesome and nourishing articles of diet.

'Some fishes, though perfectly wholesome when in season, are known to be otherwise when out of season, that is, after the time of their spawning. But this is not the case with herrings; for in the months of January and February after they have spawned, they are still wholesome as food, though not so fat and firm in the fish, nor so agreeable to the taste as before they have spawned.'

In stating the rise and progress of the Herring Fishery, Dr. W. makes an observation which ought to attract more notice from the State than it hitherto appears to have obtained:

'There

'There is no fishery in Europe of any great importance in commerce, but what subsists on the shores of this country.

'The pilchard, the sturgeon, the anchovy, and the sardine, are but diminutive articles of trade, compared to the herring and cod fisheries of the north of Scotland; yet through inattention and mismanagement, really deplorable, this great source of national prosperity we have not only neglected, but have suffered it to be appropriated by the inhabitants of rival and remote countries.

'The fishes in the Scotch seas and rivers, capable of affording articles of export, are the following: herring, cod, ling, tusk, salmon, hake, seathe, mackerel, conger eel, cairban, and dog fish. Of these the herring is by far the most considerable, and it is to the herring-fishery that these remarks are chiefly directed.'

Whatever advantages this fishery seems to promise as an article of commerce, we are sorry to learn that it is on the decline; and that, without some new and untried expedients, this favourite source of trade must be abandoned.

On the different sorts of Herrings which frequent the coasts of Scotland, with observations on the present modes of conducting the Herring Fishery, by Mr. John Mackenzie.—It appears from this paper that some dissonance exists between Dr. W.'s and Mr. M.'s accounts; the former, for instance, tells us that 'Herrings are not of a sufficient size to be meshed till the third year of their growth;' the latter, that 'the growth of this fish is so rapid as to warrant the belief that all the herring fry in the course of a year arrive at maturity, and become of sufficient size to be taken in nets;' and Mr. M. moreover offers some solid reasons for his opinion. The details of this writer evince his knowlege of the subject.

An account of the Dutch Herring Fishery, communicated by two Dutchmen to Cosmo Gordon, Esq. of the Custom-House of London, and by him to the Highland Society: to which is added the Placart or Ordinance by the States of Holland and West Friesland respecting the Dutch Herring Fishery.—This curious paper describes the size of the busses and nets employed by the Dutch-herring fishermen, with their mode of gipping, salting, packing, &c. and the hints thus afforded may be of use to the fishermen on the shores of the Highlands. The practice of our competitors is always worth knowing.

After the Herring follows the *Salmon*, concerning which fish we are furnished with four essays; first,

On the natural history of the Salmon, by the Rev. Dr. Walker. It is remarked that the Salmon may be reckoned the most important fish to be found in the fresh waters of Europe; that it is generally and abundantly disseminated; and that as an esteemed article of food, it forms a valuable

branch

branch of trade and of revenue. For these reasons, its history is interesting, and the details here given will be amusing to most readers. The common Salmon of the North, whose history Dr. W. writes, is the *Salmo Salar* of Linné. Of his *spawning*, we have this account:

'The salmon does not spawn in large, deep, or slow-running rivers, nor where the bottom consists of rock, clay, or sand. They choose for this purpose clear, shallow streams, from eighteen inches to four feet deep, bottomed with small gravel, and, to be accommodated in such a situation, they ascend to the more remote heads of our large rivers. The female or spawner, always attended by the milter or male, forms a hollow in the gravel. When this hollow is made, both fishes hover above it, and approaching each other with their bellies upwards, emit the spawn and milt at the same time.

'This I have seen, but could not be positive whether or not the two fishes were in actual contact. When the spawn is lodged in the gravel, both male and female seem to unite their endeavours in covering it over with gravel, which they heap up over it with their bellies, forming an elevated ridge from fifteen inches to three feet in length. This convex ridge is raised from three to five inches high, is from six inches to a foot broad at the middle, and tapers to a point at each extremity.'

From the state of fry, the Professor traces the animal through the stages *samlet* or *smolt*, *hirling*, *whiteling*, and *grilse*, till in the fourth year it arrives at maturity, and receives the appellation of *salmon*; the weight of which has been known to amount to 75lbs. though it is now rarely found to exceed 40lbs. Notices of its *residence*, *migrations*, *colour*, *food*, *climate*, *numbers*, *diseases*, *time of catching*, and *dietetic use*, are subjoined. Under the last head, a melancholy instance is given of the unwholesomeness of this fish when out of season, or when it is termed *black fish*.

Extracts from an Essay on the same subject, by Mr. John Mackenzie.—Having for some years been engaged in the salmon fishery, Mr. M. presents us with the fruits of his experience. He has not been led to consider the Whiteling and the Finner, or Finnoc, as young salmon: but on the subject of *spawning* he agrees with Dr. W. in most points; asserting, however, that the male and female come in contact with each other with a degree of violence (p. 379.) immediately before they deposit the spawn, and that both male and female have been often found dead recently after having spawned. Mr. M. is of opinion that the Salmon grows as rapidly as a goose, and comes much sooner to maturity than is stated in the preceding paper.—Some remarks are also offered on the *habits* and *instinct* of this fish: *ex: gr:*

'The

'The exertions which salmon are sometimes known to make, in order to overcome obstructions to their passage up rivers, are truly surprizing. I shall instance in particular the cascade or water-fall in the river Shin, in Sutherland, which is from eight to ten feet high. When the river is low, salmon never attempt to surmount this obstacle, but in time of flood they frequently succeed. When about to attempt this leap, a salmon is observed, as I have been assured, to curve himself into the form of a bow, by bringing his tail almost to his head. Thus prepared, he springs up to a great height, and if he succeeds in clearing the fall, he rushes forward through the strong body of water that opposes him, with a degree of velocity that is scarcely credible.'

Mr. M. is solicitous to prevent the rapid decay of this important branch of commerce.

Communications on the same subject, by Mr. Alexander Morrison.—This writer also details the result of experience. He informs us that every river has its own peculiar fish; that there is scarcely an instance of a fish ascending a river of which he is not a native; that at least three male salmon die shortly after having spawned in proportion to one female; and that this fish will pass from a smolt to a salmon weighing 7 or 8lbs. in the space of about twelve months.

On the same subject, by Archibald Drummond, Esq. We learn from a note that this essay was not presented till after the Prizes were adjudged, and that the Society requested permission from the author to publish it on account of the important suggestions which it offers. Mr D.'s paper, indeed, merits the place which it has attained. On the locality of the salmon, it furnishes more full information than occurs in any of the preceding essays. Dr. Walker reports that the salmon is altogether excluded from the southern hemisphere, but Mr. D. excepts *Patagonia*; and he observes respecting our northern hemisphere that the *Garonne* is the most southerly river in Europe, and the *Connecticut* in America, that is frequented by the Salmon. It is mentioned as an astonishing circumstance, that, though these fish when in fresh water will rise at almost any kind of bait, no appearance of food is found in their stomachs on being opened. In opposition to some naturalists, Mr. D. is of opinion that the ova spawned are not impregnated by the male till after their exclusion from the female; and he denies that *hillocks* or ridges of gravel are formed over the spawn. The *gilse* or *grilse* is maintained to be of the salmon species; the *samlet* is conjectured to be produced by the union of a salmon with a kind of trout: but the *phinoc* is denied to be young salmon. Mr. Drummond also deplores the decline of the fishery, and recommends the enactment of a broad

a broad and comprehensive law of *Conservancy*, to protect the fry, and to prevent the injudicious destruction of this valuable fish.

As an useful supplement to the foregoing papers, Mr. R. Melville presents us with an Essay on the *Fisheries of Scotland;* in which he adverts to the state of the Cod, Ling, and Herring fisheries, and urges the great importance of taking measures for the encouragement of these branches of industry.

In a memoir intitled *Suggestions respecting various improvements in the Highlands of Scotland*, by the Rev. James Headrick, many species of employment are enumerated, as the herring, salmon, and other fisheries, the improvement of land, the cultivation of hemp and flax, the growth of wool, the rearing of swine, the manufacturing of bar-iron, &c.; and from the author's hints the following general conclusions are deduced:

'That the Highlands and Isles possess great natural means of wealth, were that wealth rendered effectual by active industry:

'That there is no occasion for a Highlander to go to cultivate the wilds of America, while he is surrounded at home by so much land inviting his laborious hand:

'That, whether he chooses to work on sea or on land, above ground or below it, he is not likely soon to want employment:

'That, while we leant on the Northern Powers for the raw materials of our fleets, we neglected our internal resources:

'That, when these resources are called into action, Britain will become a world, able to contend with another world in arms.'

The last prize essay in the second volume contains *an account of the culture and produce of a field of potatoes in the vicinity of Leith*, communicated by James Bell, Esq. Merchant, Leith, and exhibits the superior value of a particular sort called Matthew Cree's early white-eyed store potatoe.

An Appendix, together with the lists of premiums and members, gives *the description of the manner of preparing any ordinary ship's boat, so as to render it a life-boat*, suggested by the Rev. James Bremner: but without the illustrative plates a clear idea of it cannot be conveyed.

The memoirs in Vol. III. must be the subject of a future article.

[*To be continued.*] Mo-y.

ART.

ART. III. *More Subjects than One;* or cursory Views of various Objects, principally connected with France and the French People: to which are added Essays and miscellaneous Reflections on different Topics. By J. B. Davis, M.D., Author of the Antient and Modern History of Nice *, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Tipper. 1807.

WHY will authors provoke comparisons to their disadvantage? Dr. Davis evidently means to be considered as an imitator of Sterne, yet the motions of the cart-horse and the gazelle are not more dissimilar than the characters of the works of these two writers. The Doctor does not appear to have one drop of Shandean blood in his veins, though he has exerted all his powers to set himself off as an 'odd fellow,' and plays at that *hop, step, and jump* authorship which by some persons is considered as an evidence of excentric genius.

For our part, we have no objection to *more subjects than one* in a publication: but we are too dense to perceive the merit of jumbling different things together and making confusion for confusion's sake, when it would have been more easy to have consulted arrangement. In this piece of patchwork, (the motto to which should have been *Unus et alter assuitur pannus,*) the author aims at great variety, and presents himself as the traveller, the antiquary, the historian, the biographer, the novel-writer, and the essayist: but we cannot compliment him on having succeeded in each of these departments. He seems to have possessed himself with the persuasion that flimsy productions suit the taste of the age; and that the more a book resembles Chaos, the more acceptable it must be to our people of *bon-ton.* Be this as it may, we shall always feel it our duty to discountenance the nonsense and absurdity of authorship; and to cherish a regard for method, correctness, and good taste, in opposition to childish whim and irrational caprice. What good reason can Dr. D. give for wishing 'to be classed among the odd ones'? As a gentleman he is more at home than in the part of harlequin or clown; and we advise him, when he writes again, to banish all thoughts of Yorick, and to renounce the character of a manufacturer of *Yorickisms.* At times, Dr. D. introduces a figure which may be termed the rhetorical *flying off at a tangent.* The reflection which arises in his mind when he is in the stables at Chantilly is of this sort:

'Now, (says he,) that I am in the superb stables of Chantilly, let me observe, by the bye, that 3,000,000 horses, which our country

* See Rev. for October last.

boasts

boasts of, exceed by one third the number we really stand in need of, either for agricultural pursuits, the sports of the chace, public service, and internal intercourse. Those lands, therefore, which produce forage, might be productive of wheat, and the quartern loaf accordingly be reduced in value, perhaps one third. Moreover, we have horses of a gigantic size, which will require three times the quantity of food, although they cannot perform double the work.'

Sometimes, the Doctor indulges in credulity, and presumes on finding readers as credulous as himself; for he not only records the romantic adventures of novel-writers as facts, but gravely tells us that 'no less than forty tuns full of gold watches alone were in the warehouses of the Mont de Piété at Paris.' It is true that he introduces the story with '*I have been told*:' but if he did not believe it, why blot his paper with it? The remark on this establishment is another instance of *tangential aberration*:

'This establishment might easily be made the temple of charity; but I sincerely lament, that if the authors of *l'Esprit des Loix*, *Télémaque*, the Paradise Lost, or the Wealth of Nations, had carried their manuscripts to the Mont de Piété, not one of the sworn appraisers would have allowed them the means of procuring a good dinner.'

Why should Dr. D. lament that pawnbrokers cannot appreciate the merit of learned compositions? Their scales can ascertain the weight of a piece of plate, and their judgment can discriminate a real diamond from paste: but to gauge literary talent must necessarily be out of their line.

Like most tourists in France, this writer commences his notices at Calais, takes us to Paris, and thence to the several towns and places which lie in his route; and if he had been contented to appear the plain philosophical traveller, he would have succeeded much better than in his strange vagaries and efforts at diversity. Some objects are well described: but, as the sentimental novel-writer, he displays his talents to no advantage. At Paris, he meets with many adventures, and his remarks evince a discernment of character and national peculiarities. A wish to do justice to the French people prevails, and he does not omit to mention those circumstanees which redound to their honour. The following passage is a proof of this assertion:

'I cannot forbear mentioning in this place various establishments in France, which I have heard of as reflecting the highest honor upon the beneficent persons who supported them; and shall repeat, as far as I can recollect, in nearly the same words, the history which one of my friends recited to me. "I was in Paris," said he, "in the year 1783, immediately after the American war was at an end,

end, and generally spent the morning in visiting the public buildings and libraries. In one of these latter, the *Bibliothèque de St Genevieve*, I had often observed a knight of the order of *St. Louis*, whose every feature and address would have spoken the gentleman, though he had not worn a badge of honor. We also met frequently at other places of public resort, where we exchanged a hearty, "*How do you do? I am glad to see you.*" On a sudden I missed this worthy gentleman, and would have willingly enquired after him, if I had known to whom to apply, when one day I was accosted by another visitor of the *Bibliothèque de St. Genevieve*, who said; "I suppose, Sir, you wish to hear of the *Chevalier* ****, and I am happy to inform you, that he is mending fast. He has been very ill indeed; but if you should wish to see him, you will find him at such an hospital; and I dare to say, (making a low bow) a visit from you will give him great pleasure." I instantly went in quest of the *Chevalier*, though I experienced very unpleasing sensations upon reflecting, that I was to meet him in an hospital. However, I proceeded with great expedition, and found him in a very decent room, seated in a comfortable armchair, surrounded with cushions, and every article of accommodation near at hand. After the first compliments, "The remembrance of this kind visit," added he, very graciously, "will never be effaced from my recollection: I must however observe, very candidly, that I am surprized a person of your superior understanding could have been so far influenced by national prejudice, as to imagine England was the only country where the afflicted could meet with relief and consolation. This is an hospital, it is true, within the precincts of which there are five other apartments besides mine, ready for the reception of reduced gentlemen like myself, who, for the trifling sum of forty sous per day, have medical and chirurgical attendance, one or two nurses to sit up at night, if requisite, are supplied with medicines; and when in a state of convalescence, with wholesome food, and such dainties as may be more agreeable to their palate or debilitated stomach. We know not who are our benefactors, neither do they enquire who are under obligations to them. Perhaps I shall not have left this place two days, before I receive an invitation to his sumptuous banquet, from the very person to whose pecuniary aid I shall be indebted for a speedy recovery, and the excellent treatment I have received under this hospitable roof. In many of our public infirmaries, there are also apartments of the same kind, destined for people of the same description, who, otherwise, could not even afford to see a physician." "Stop, my good Sir," interrupted my friend: "stop, I pray you: I rejoice at being able to inform you, that we have glorious examples in England of the beneficence of men, who make it their highest boast to devote their talents and a large portion of their fortunes to relieve the distresses of their necessitous countrymen. May there be imitators of these philanthropists in every succeeding age, who, like them, will divest themselves of private prejudices, and have no other motive than that of doing good."—Oh! that when I left the *Chevalier* I had met with any individual in distress! how welcome would he have been to the contents of my purse, though pretty heavy!"

'Happy

'Happy do I feel that my predecessor, Sterne, knew not of those institutions! I never could have had the satisfaction of being the first man to recommend this mode of assisting those brave men, who, after having bled for their king and country, are reduced to a paltry half pay, scarcely sufficient to keep the soul and body from mutiny, in a state of health, and much less to supply the wants of an invalid!'

In spite of the vices which afflict individuals and nations, benevolence will display her charms; and when we are most inclined to turn misanthropes, the voice of Charity retrieves the fallen credit of human nature. When we hear of such instances as that which has just been recited, we are willing to believe that the heart of man is not so black as it is sometimes painted; and that Religion, if it cannot subdue the tempest of the passions, has a powerful influence in promoting our best principles and affections.

According to Dr. D.'s report, the females of France are trained to industry, and are made to supply their trifling wants out of a fund of their own creation:

'A custom prevails amongst respectable families, which I leave to the reader to commend or disapprove. From the time the daughters of this class of people leave school, to that of their getting married, they remain at their parents as mere boarders, no article of dress, or pocket money being allowed them; so that they adopt the habit of making millenery, embroidery, fancy dresses, &c. which articles a *marchande à la toilette* calls for every fortnight in order to dispose of them. The young ladies thus, without any further expence to their friends, procure the means of dressing well, paying for their admission at the theatre, and defraying the loss they sometimes sustain at the card table.'

Medical men are said to understand good eating; and Dr. Davis, in order to shew that among other objects he has not omitted to study French cookery, affords the ensuing hints: for which the aldermen of London will no doubt vote him the freedom of the city in a *turtle-shell box*, superbly mounted:

'Beyond the gates of Paris, in every direction, there is a cluster of *Cabarets* or *Guinguettes*, which, on Sundays especially, are the resorts of the multitude. From these, however, are to be excepted *Le Gros Caillou*, and *La Rapée*, where the most genteel companies will occasionally go to partake of a *Matelote*..... Pray, Sir, what is a *Matelote?* A very luscious dainty dish, Mr. Reader, generally composed of eels, pike, carp, and tench, with craw-fish in abundance, mushrooms, pickles, sauces, &c. &c. &c. the whole stewed, and swimming on a brisk fire in three or four bottles of wine, if the party is not very large.—In England we bet for a rump and dozen: in Paris the bet is for a *Matelote*. The parties go down to the river side, and choose their own fish: there are eels the size of my wrist, and carp that

that weigh ten, twelve, or even sixteen pounds, the other fish in proportion.

'The inn-keepers have dishes of every dimension; and though in the opinion of many it may appear an exaggeration, I will venture to say, that, upon many occasions, a turtle dinner in London is not so extravagant as a *Matelote*, which dish alone has cost twenty-five louis.'

The accounts of places in the South of France are composed in a good style; and it is to be lamented that the author thought it necessary to interrupt them by matter which does not well blend with them. His descriptions of the country between Dijon and Lyons in the first volume, of his passage down the Rhone in the beginning of the second, and subsequently of Toulon, Marseilles, Arles, La Crau, Nismes, Beziers, &c. are amusing; and from this part of the work, therefore, justice to the writer requires us to make one or two extracts:

'Arles is certainly one of the pleasantest residences that a man might choose, could he forget his country. The town itself is delightfully situated on the flowery banks of the Rhone, and encompassed with gardens and orchards well watered, and where reigns a perpetual freshness, the first of enjoyments in so hot a climate. Numerous public walks, shaded with spreading mulberries, are the evening resort of the inhabitants, the finest race of men perhaps to be seen any where. Never did I behold a more fascinating assemblage of beauty. The women are, in general, above the middling size; their face is a perfect oval, a blooming complexion gives additional brilliancy to their black sparkling eyes, shaded by long eyelids; their nose is somewhat aquiline, like that of the ancient Roman ladies, whose likeness has been preserved by statues and medals; the rest of their features is perfectly in harmony, and the whole is set off by beautiful long black hair. Their shape corresponds with their lovely countenance, and their dress is well calculated to display its perfect symmetry; their under-garments are very short; their arms, bare almost to the shoulder, are ornamented with large golden bracelets, chains, &c. like those worn by Roman matrons; the drapery, which forms the outer dress, is a mixture of the Greek and Roman style, which gives them the appearance of those nymphs, figured in *antique basso relievos*. To finish the picture, I should add, that a lively gait, a constant chearfulness, and the softest voice, give animation and interest to the charming *tout ensemble*. The men, although less particular in their dress, are not inferior to the other sex in exterior accomplishments; the inhabitants of this district seem a race of people quite distinct from the rest of the population of ancient Provence. Arles was formerly a Roman colony, and the descendants of the first settlers appear but little tainted with a mixture of foreign blood. The Arlatians have even *conserved* the taste of their ancestors for bloody sports, and bull-fights of various kinds are still their favourite diversions.'

As a specimen of rural description, we insert the subjoined passage:

'During my stay at Montpellier, I heard so much of the beautiful appearance of the country, between it and Beziers, that I determined to visit a district, which, on the faith of an old Latin proverb, was represented as a perfect paradise,

'*Si Deus in terris vellet habitare*, Biterris.

"If God would dwell on earth, it would be at Beziers:" let us see, said I, and I accordingly set out on my excursion.

'I soon reached the banks of *l'Herault*, a small limpid river, which gives its name to the department; I followed its course for some time, through the most enchanting country, till I arrived at Penenas, situated on the opposite side. Words cannot convey an adequate idea of the surrounding scenery: nature seems to have poured her choicest and most valuable gifts on that privileged spot; the earth is alternately chequered by corn-fields, meadows, orchards, groves of olive and orange trees; innumerable gardens display all the perishable treasures of Flora, which the industrious bee, with buzzing noise, hastens to rob of their sweets. The genial rays of the sun quicken into life the latent seeds of the most fragrant plants, while its too great heat is tempered by the gentle breeze, wafting the vapours of neighbouring streams over the country. I never could describe the sensation I experienced on beholding the sun rising over this favoured spot, the chirping of innumerable birds, the gay songs of the sons and daughters of labour, going to resume their daily employment, the softest and distant sound of the *chalumeau* sacred to love, the air, charged with the fragrant emanations of flowers, carrying to heaven the grateful tribute of *flavoured earth*. Feelings entirely new thrilled through my frame, and intent on enjoying, I lost the powers of remembrance.

'I continued my journey to Beziers, without taking much notice of the once stately castle, belonging to the present king of France, and whose decayed state attests the undiscriminating havock of revolutions. The same features characterize the country all the way to Beziers; but whether my admiration was in some measure exhausted, or whether a man does not care to have his judgment biassed, and his sentiments forced upon him, by an old proverb, I found the country about Beziers inferior to the neighbourhood of Penenas.

'Beziers is, however, a charming town, situated on a hill, at the bottom of which flows the Obre; it contains, too, some antiquities, but of little importance, compared to those of Nismes. The famous canal of Languedoc passes at no great distance, yet Beziers enjoys little or no commerce. I went to visit that inland navigation, which is certainly a noble undertaking, but which we could more than match by several of the same kind in the United Kingdoms; though I must own, that *in books* ours are nothing to it.'

We pass over the Doctor's return to Paris through the Bourbonnais, together with his arrest, and the circumstances of his situation with the detained English at Verdun. His anecdote

anecdote of Rose de May did not deeply affect us, though he found a myrtle growing on the spot where she fell, after she had precipitated herself, in love-despair, from a rock, as Sterne found a nettle growing on the monk's grave; and we think that his concluding reflections evince more labour than felicity. As he is an M. D., we did not expect to find him adopting the vulgar error that to persons in a jaundice every object appears yellow. His language is often incorrect, and scarcely English. 'Having supped *with* a glass of capilaire and water,' instead of *on*: he 'was *imposed* 150 livres,' for *fined*: 'the French ladies are *foreign* to no subject:' 'well informed *with* literary anecdotes:' 'the Montmorencys have *illustrated* the land:' '*Pretexting* an absence,' &c. The Latin quotations are sometimes inaccurate, but these may be mere errors of the press.

Mo-y.

Art IV. *Richardi Bentleii et Doctorum Virorum Epistolæ, Partim Mutuæ. Accedit Richardi Dawesii ad Joannem Taylorum Epistola Singularis. Londini, Typis Bulmerianis.* 1807. Edited by Dr. C. Burney *. 4to. pp. 330. Not sold.

We shall not attempt to describe the gratification with which we announce this superb and interesting volume: but we must offer our tribute to the taste and the munificence of its most learned editor; and we must thank him, *etiam atque etiam*, for his ardour in the service of literature, and his zeal in preserving the memory of kindred excellence. This true critic will, as we trust, pardon us for communicating to the public a part of those treasures which have *hitherto* been confined among a chosen few; especially as our precipitancy, if we are precipitate, is only eagerness to proclaim the triumph which he has achieved for the *manes* of his illustrious predecessor.

To affect to *review* a work like the present would be ridiculous presumption. This article should be considered as a *notice*, enriched occasionally with extracts, which we ourselves

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* The copies, as presented by the editor, are accompanied by this printed inscription:

'Bentleii Magni
Epistolis
in lucem, Honoris Caussa, *prolatis*,
Locum
Intra parietes Bibliothecæ Tuæ adsignandum
Petit
Carolus Burney.'

and still more (it is feared) the reader would have been better pleased to see occupy the whole of it. Lest, however, the reviewer should be quite forgotten in the review itself, a few remarks shall be introduced, in due place and form.

The volume is divided into three parts: 1. *Bentleii et Grævii Epistolæ Mutuæ.* 2. *Miscellaneous Letters.* 3. *Appendix.*

1. THE GRÆVIAN CORRESPONDENCE comprizes forty-four Letters, *Latin.* Ten from Bentley to Grævius: Thirty-one, including the *Epistola Dedicatoria præmissa Alberti Petri Paulli Rubenii Dissertationi, de Vita Flavii Mallii Theodori,* from Grævius to Bentley: one from Mr. James Cappel to Grævius; and two from Peter Burman to Bentley. pp. 1—149. This is by far the most important part of the volume; and had nothing else been printed, the editor would have offered very high claims to the gratitude of the public. Bentley's letters are such as might be expected from his incomparable talents, vigorously exerted in courting the favour of one whose attainments he admired, and whose virtues he reverenced. They are written with his characteristic energy, tempered by peculiar elegance of courtesy, and animated by a genuine spirit of benevolence and respect, which proclaims them the offspring of a feeling far higher than literary friendship:—they have an air of liveliness and amenity, totally different from the technical style and the dull formality of most *erudite epistles*;—and they display so rare an union of compliment not overloaded, and erudition not obtrusive, that they are fairly intitled to be called *inter epistolas eruditas elegantissimæ, inter elegantes eruditissimæ.*—Those of Grævius, though less important, are very interesting. Many, indeed, contain nothing but a recommendation of the bearer, and thanks for past attentions: but many also will be read with advantage by every scholar; and all give so amiable a picture of the writer's mind, that even the most insignificant do great honour to his memory.

Bentley opens the correspondence by requesting Grævius's opinion concerning the author of the astronomical poem which passes under the name of Manilius, and by offering him some literary services. The letter shall be subjoined:

'*Facile, uti spero, quæ tua est humanitas, indulgebis desiderio hominis, qui a teneris unguiculis eruditionem tuam unice admiror et prædico, et nunc demum ad amicitiam tuam Cl. Crameri operâ viam affecto. Est quidam apud nos Edvardus Sherburnus, Eques Auratus, qui librum primum Manilii Anglicé vertit, et commentario doctissimo auxit. Is abhinc annis aliquot apparatum Gasp. Gevartii ad Manilium ab ejus hærede emit Antuerpiæ; mihique non ita pridem, quem novam ejus scriptoris editionem parare inaudiverat, schedas Gevartianas perlegendi copiam fecit. Comperi autem virum cl. omnem operam in eo posuisse; non qui Manilii textum corrigeret*

corrigeret vel illustraret, sed qui infelicem suam (mea quidem sententia) conjecturam de Theodoro Mallio Cos. quem Astronomici auctorem esse voluit, adversus Barthios et Salmasios, et Tristanos et Possinos defenderet. Nihil tamen in medium profert, quod momenti habeat quicquam ad opinionem suam stabiliendam, præterquam quæ dudum in lucem ediderat in Papinianis *et* Variis Lectionibus. *Itaque cum toties repetita crambe nauseam mihi et fastidium moveret; mirifice tamen recreatus sum aureolis duabus epistolis, quæ in isto chartarum fasce latitabant, quæque celeberrimum Grævii nomen ferebant inscriptum. Illud vero me perculisse fateor, quod ad Gevartii sententiam de ætate Manilii videaris accedere: atque adeo, si confidentiæ meæ veniam dederis, libenter te velim sciscitari, seriόne istud liberoque judicio dixeris; an ut assentatiuncula istas (ut in rebus levioribus fieri solet obsequio haud inhonesto) ejus gratiam conciliares: et si forte serio, eademne nunc tibi ac tum olim stet sententia, quibusque argumentis statuminata. Erat etiam præterea, quod me Adversaria ista versantem non mediocri voluptate affecit, Dissertatio scilicet bene longa et perquam erudita de vita Fl. Mallii Theodori Cos. autore, ut casu comperi, Alberto Rubenio; cujus* Opuscula Posthuma, *te obstetricante, in lucem prodierunt. Hanc meo judicio minime aignam quæ cum blattis et tineis diutius conflictetur, curabo tibi mittendam; si ejus editionem te procuraturum fore polliceris: et quidem vel unâ cum aliis quibusdam, vel etiam sola non incommode edi poterit. Vir doctissimus et humanissimus Johannes Morus Episcopus Norvicensis ultro tibi offert Lectiones Variantes in Libris Philosophicis Ciceronis, quas ex vetusto codice descripserat quidam in ora ed. Rob. Stephani in fol.; et ubi tibi cordi esse intellexerit, statim Amanuensi mandabit, ut omnes in chartam conjiciat; et sine mora tibi transmittat. Vale, humaniorum literarum decus et columen, καὶ φιλοῦντα ἀντιφίλει.*

'Londini in ædibus Episcopi
Wigorniensis, 4° Julii, 1692.'

Grævius answers,

'Recens eram a lectione tuæ, quam Malelæ Chronicis subjecisti, epistolæ, cum Rotterodami, quo me domesticum negotium vocarat, inciderem in Cramerum nostrum, ex navi, quæ incolumem ex vestra beata insula retulerat, tantum quod egressum. Nihil tam cari capitis complexu mihi poterat accidere desideratius. Gaudium, quod ex insperato illius occursu capiebam, cumulabant quæ mihi statim de te narrare cœpit. Plenus enim, ut sic dicam, tui, ita me ceperat pulcherrima illa tua disputatio, quæ tam multa præclara, tam multa recondita nos docuerat, ut totus in illa defixus de nulla re magis cogitarem, de nulla libentius loquerer apud homines non impolitos quam de te, de tuo ingenio et doctrina, ut videreris non modo in animo, sed et in ore meo habitare. Mirifice enim gaudeo, ubi video succrescere, qui rei litterariæ fere collapsam dignitatem sustinere possint, et propagare, cum paucis annis plerosque omnes amiserimus, qui eam solebant tueri. Cum Cramerus non longe post tuas promeret ac mihi redderet litteras, plane triumphabam, mihique gratulabar, te, quem tanti facio, mihi ad amicitiam tuam ultro, quod majorem in modum optabam, foros patefecisse, cum testificatione summa prolixæ tuæ in me voluntatis. Nullum gratius a magno Rege mihi deferri potuit congiarium, quam quod tu mihi detulisti tui amoris munus. Velim tibi persuasum sit, et exploratum, omnium curarum mihi semper futuram antiquissimam, ut amicitiam, quam auspicato, sic augurari libet, iniimus, tuear omni studio et officio.'—

He then proceeds to return Bentley's services; and, that their recent friendship might be confirmed by a community of studies, he begs his friend's remarks on Callimachus, of which he was then preparing his edition. These remarks form the subject of many of the succeeding letters; in which, by the way, are some complaints of the slowness of printers, that would make no bad figure in a chapter on the *Miseries of Authorship.* Nor is Grævius less plagued by the acquaintances to whom, notwithstanding frequent hints from Bentley, the good man continues to intrust his packages, rather than expose his friend to the *calamity of postage.*

No. 29., by Bentley, on the ever-memorable Phalaridean controversy, shall be inserted:

'*Quid fit, quid agitur, amicorum dulcissime? Si vales, bene est; ego quidem sic satis valeo; et ubi te bene valere et Bentleium tuum amare intellexero, tum demum me optime valere sentiam. Jam pridem est cum ad postremas tuas prolixam responsionem dedi, quam an acceperis, nescio, quia ex illo tempore nihil a te. Vix tamen dubitare possum de tabellariorum fide et cura; cum eadem vice literas alias meas Amstelodamum recte curatas fuisse, certo resciverim. In ea epistola multis verbis egi de loco Ciceronis, aliisque, quæ nunc mihi exciderunt. Memini tamen me illa scripsisse, a magna animi commotione, quam malevoli quidam homines in me excitarant, non plane liberum et quietum. Vereor itaque, ne nonnulla in iis literis duriuscule dicta sint, unde offensiuncula aliqua oriri possit. Ea siqua sunt (sed spero meliora, nam Epistolæ exemplum non habeo) oro te atque obsecro per omnia fidelissimæ amicitiæ jura, ut ventis Aquilonibus in mare Atlanticum portanda tradas. Sciunt enim omnes, qui me norunt; et si vitam mihi Deus O. M. prorogaverit, scient etiam posteri, ut te et τὸν πάνυ Spanhemium, geminos hujus ævi Dioscuros, lucida Literarum sidera, semper prædicaverim, semper veneratus sim. Nunc quid tecum in præsentia velim, vir humanissime, paucis accipe. Anno superiore Dissertationem edidi de Epistolis Phalaridis, quas commentitias esse docui his et similibus argumentis; Obitum Phalaridis, secundum Eusebium et Suidam, incidere in Olymp.* LVII. *In Epistola autem ultima mentionem esse* Φιντιέων. *Phintiam vero urbem Olymp. * demum* CXXV. *conditam, ab Agrigenti tyranno Phintia nomen habuisse. Ibidem una cum Phintiensibus nominari* Γελῴους, *tanquam ab illis diversos: atqui eosdem esse Phintienses, † qui antea Geloi dicti. Epistolâ* XCII. εἰς Ἄλαισαν. *Sed Alæsam primum conditam esse Olymp.* XCIV.‡ *In Ep.* LXX. ποτηρίων Θηρικλείων: *Pocula autem Thericlea a Thericle figulo appellari,* || *qui æqualis erat Aristophanis Comici. In Ep.* LXXXV. Ζαγκλαίους, *in* XXI. *et* LXXXIV. Μεσσηνίους. *Sed eosdem esse Zanclæos, qui* § *Messenii vocati Olymp.* LXXIII. *sub Anaxilao Rhegii tyranno. Ep.* XV. *et aliis* Ταυρομενείτας, *Taurominium* ¶ *autem cond. Olymp.* CV. *Ep.* XXXV. λογὸς ἔργου σκιά: *hujus* ** *sententiæ autorem fuisse Democritum, post Olymp.* LXXX. *Hæc et alia multo plura quanquam in ista Dissertatione fuse explicantur, nuper tamen exorti sunt, quos hæc nostra arrodere,*

'* *Diodor. p* 867. † *Idem. ibid.* ‡ *Idem. p.* 246. || *Athen p.* 470. § *Thucyd. Herod.* ¶ *Diod. lib.* XIV. XV. ** *Laert. Plutarch.*'

Phalarinque

Phalarinque pro vero Epistolarum autore denuo venditare non puduit. Quæ, inquies, hæc insania est, in luce tam manifesta tenebras persequi? Scilicet id male urebat homines, quod Epistolas illas, quas ipsi haud ita multo ante cum magna pompa et ostentatione Oxonii ediderant, ego spurias esse, et nullius frugis, omnibus demonstraverim. Collatis itaque operis Libellum Anglice scriptum consarcinant; non argumentis, sed ineptis cavillationibus, convitiis, calumniisque rem strenue agentes. Inter alia id etiam vitio mihi vertunt, quod exterorum, magis quam nostratium gratiam promereri studeam. Ut vix quidem a te et Spanhemio maledicas linguas abstinent, quia me a vobis amari sciunt; in me vero quam impudens mendacium conflaverint, jam audies. Meministi, opinor, me olim Alberti Rubenii de Manlio Cos. Disputationem ab Edvardo Sherburno Equite acceptam, tibi typis vestris edendam commisisse: te autem, me plane inscio, librum illum mihi dedicasse; de Sherburno autem nullam omnino (quod magnopere fieri optabam) mentionem fecisse. Narrant itaque hi calumniatores, me data opera Sherburni beneficium silentio dissimulasse, ut solidam illam Dedicationis gloriam in me transferrem. Quæ quidem calumnia quam a vero aliena sit, tu, vir amicissime, et Deus ὁ παντοδαὴς testes mihi estis. Testis etiam et Johannes Morus Episcopus Norvicensis, vir eruditione et humanitate insigni; qui literas ad me tuas legisse meminit, quibus gratias eo nomine agebas Sherburno, ejusque ad Manilium commentarium a me magnopere laudatum te emere velle memorabas. Sed nescio quo casu periit mihi itsa tua Epistola, quam nunc talento magno redemptam vellem . . . . . cum ergo superest, peto a te, vir maxime, et per summam nostram amicitiam etiam atque etiam oro te atque obtestor; ut quamprimum fieri poterit, Epistolæ meæ, in qua verba feci de Sherburno, exemplum mihi remittas; tum ut literas mihi scribas, quæ rem omnem, ut gesta est, narrent; méque, ut æquum est, ab hac culpa absolvant; et una cum Dissertatione nostra mox recudenda typis edantur. Noli autem metuere, ne in rixam hanc incurras, aut irrites crabronum examina. Jactu enim exigui pulveris hæ turbæ consilescent. τὸ γὰρ εὖ μετ' ἐμου. *et quicquid mea gratia scripseris, omnibus doctis et bonis, Archiepiscopis Episcopisque faventibus scribes. Vale. In Aed. Sti. Jacobi, 29 April.* 1698.'

Vereor ne duriuscule, &c. This solicitude was quite unnecessary, for that preceding letter was full of expressions of the most affectionate regard. For instance, take the exordium :—

'*Longe mihi gratissima venit, quæ nudius tertius ad me allata est, Epistola, qua de literarum mearum intermissione benevole mecum expostulas. Eam enim objurgationem certissimum esse duco testimonium amoris erga me tui. Sed per amicitiam nostram oro, atque adeo postulo, ut me haud aliter erga te affectum esse credas, quam erga hominem oportet, cui maximis beneficiis sum obligatus. Quod autem jam aliquot menses nullas a me literas acceperis, malim aliud quidvis te suspicari, quam Bentleium tuum vel tui oblivisci, vel subirasci tibi potuisse. Nulla certe alia caussa erat, præterquam quod neminem haberem, qui literas meas ad te perferret.*'

The whole letter is in all respects worthy of its author. We add one signal passage :

'Quod ad Dissertationem meam attinet de Phalaridis &c. Epistolis, deque Fabulis Æsopicis; scito eam esse Anglice scriptam; nam ni ita esset, jamdudum exemplaria aliquot ad te misissem. Edita est abhinc quinquennium circiter a Gulielmo Temple Equite Disputatio, qua conatus est ostendere, vetustos scriptores in omni scientiarum laude ætatis nostræ hominibus præripere palmam. Sic Homerum, qui poema primus composuit, sic Phalarin, qui Epistolas, Æsopum, qui Fabulas; singulos in suo scribendi genere cæteris omnibus præstare. Hunc librum refutandum suscepit Gulielmus Wottonus amicus noster; qui cum forte ex me audierat Phalaridis Epistolas esse commentitias, Fabulasque, ut nunc quidem extant Æsopi non esse; per veterem, quæ sibi mecum intercedit amicitiam obsecrans impetravit, ut Dissertationem ea de re scriberem una cum libro suo erudito sane et bono publicandam. Adjunxi tres alias dissertatiunculas, de Themistoclis, Socratis, Euripidisque Epistolis. Omnes has suppositities esse tot docui argumentis, ut de hac re postea ne Carneades quidem dubitare potuerit, si esset in vivis. Multa quoque illic in transcursu dicta sunt; quæ, si Anglice scires, haud displicitura tibi fore satis scio.'

The above quotation deserves the attention of the sapient personages who ask what motive, except pure pedantry and love of wrangling, could have drawn Bentley into so frivolous a controversy. If they are not satisfied with his own account, let them turn to p. xii. of the preface to the Answer to Boyle, where they will find a document, signed by Wotton, in which he testifies that the Dissertation on Phalaris was undertaken at his request, before the appearance of Mr. Boyle's edition: that Bentley was averse to the dispute; and that he begged to be released from his engagement, because he could not write without noticing Mr. Boyle's calumnies.

This is far from being the only instance in which Bentley's character has been traduced on conjecture. Dr. Harwood, in his view of the editions of the classics, has the following remarks: "Dr. Davies was a very learned and judicious editor, and did not deserve to be contemptuously called *Juvenis*, as Dr. Bentley affects to style him in his *Emendationes ad Ciceronis Tusculanas Quæstiones*", (article, *Cicero De Finibus.*) On the *Tusculanæ, edit. Davisii*, he adds, "only the editions of 1709 and 1738 contain Dr. Bentley's *Emendationes ad Ciceronis Tusculanas Quæstiones.* Some illiberal and contemptuous reflections of Dr. Bentley caused Davies, *I suppose*, not to subjoin them to the second and third editions." Thus is the memory of the greatest of men exposed to insults, by the absurd fancies of those who cannot or will not read their works! From the prefaces of those very two editions, it is evident that Bentley withdrew his *Emendationes*, for the purpose of republishing them in an improved form; and in the mean time he communicated a copy of the Tusculans, corrected throughout by himself, to Davies, who chiefly followed

followed it in revising his text.—This statement is made, and supported by the proper quotations, in the advertisement prefixed to some important notes of Bentley, published for the first time at Oxford in 1805, with Davies's Tusculans. These notes are an imperfect sketch of Bentley's *Curæ Secundæ*; which, as the editor says, on the authority of a most learned friend, were never finished, in consequence of the loss of some important collations.—We had forgotten *Juvenis*: the inscription is this: "AMICISSIMO JUVENI JOANNI DAVISIO, VIRTUTE, INGENIO, ET ERUDITIONE PRÆSTANTI, *Salutem.*" —Such are bibliographers!

Nunc ad te, et tua, MAGNE PATER, *consulta revertor.*—The correspondence closes with Burman's letters; in the first of which he relates, in a very feeling manner, the death of Grævius. The second accompanied a presentation copy of his Petronius, and contains, among other things, a strenuous invective against John Le Clerc.

We now proceed to PART II. of which little more than a catalogue can be given.

MISCELLANEOUS LETTERS.

Rev. Dr. Bentley to Rev. Dr. Bernard. Eleven Letters, Eng. Lat. pp. 153—183.

Rev. Dr. Bernard to Rev. Dr. Bentley. Nine Letters. Lat. pp. 184—197.

These letters afford some curious materials for the history of Bentley's mind. The subject of most of them is the Dissertation on Joannes Malelas, of which Bernard superintended the printing, and on which, as he proceeded, he communicated his remarks. To read this good man's letters throughout is no mean exercise of patience. If any thing can be worse than his objections to Bentley's criticisms, it is the outrageous absurdity of the conjectures which he would substitute for them; and the style, if style it can be called, is in character with the matter. Fortunately, however, the worthlessness of these letters has made them invaluable, in the testimony which they bear to Bentley's candour and moderation. In his answers, it is easy to discern a painful struggle between esteem for his correspondent, and disgust at his frivolous and pertinacious cavils; and though the friend prevails over the author, the victory is dearly bought. To a writer of Bentley's genius, it must have been a most severe trial, to see his first efforts misunderstood by the very man whose friendship and whose erudition should have made him the foremost to appreciate and applaud them; and that the disappointment was felt in its full force

appears

appears from the end of the 3d letter, in which he says,—'*decrevi, et stat sententia, ubi semel pertexui quod ad Malelam exorsus sum, humanioribus literis nuncium remittere.*'

John Le Clerc to Dr. Bentley. Lat. pp. 198—200. *The answer.* Lat. pp. 201—211.

Le Clerc asks whether Bentley is the author of a book publishing against his *Menander.* The learned reader needs not to be told that *Phileleutheri Lipsiensis Emendationes* is the book in question, and that Le Clerc's suspicion was well-founded: but, though he was right in the main, he first by some measures not very consistent with honour, and then by the tenor of his letter, which is insidious without art and imperative without dignity, completely justifies the dreadful rebuke which he receives in the answer. That wonderful composition is the brightest ornament of the present volume, and would alone have ranked Bentley among the heroes of literature. We deeply lament thas its great length renders its total insertion in our pages impossible, and it must not be mutilated.

Dr. Bentley to Dr. Davies. Eng. pp. 212—217. The well-known castigation of Joshua Barnes and his Homer.

Dr. Bentley to M. Gacon. Lat. pp. 218—221. On two passages of Anacreon.

Dr. Bentley to J. C. Biel. Lat. pp. 221—227. On the sacred glosses of Hesychius.

Dr. Bentley to the Abp. of Canterbury, 2 letters. *To an anonymous correspondent,* 1 letter.—Eng. pp. 228.—238. On Bentley's projected edit. of the N. T.

Dr. Bentley to La Croze. Lat. pp. 239. 240. Requesting the collation of the Berlin MS. of St. John's Gospel.

Dr. Bentley to Dr. Mead. Eng. pp. 240—253. On the celebrated Βουστροφηδὸν inscription, of which Chishull and Dr. Chandler have given an account. This incomparable monument, as all lovers of antiquities will rejoice to hear, is now safe in this country, in the princely collection of Lord Elgin.

The same to the same. Lat. pp. 253—255. With a copy of Nicander, corrected throughout at Mead's request.

The same to his brother, Mr. James Bentley. Eng. pp. 256, 257.

The same to Dr. S. Clarke. Eng. pp. 258—261. Giving a pleasant account of the state of parties at Cambridge.

The same to J. J. Wetstein. Lat. pp. 262, 263. Requesting his assistance in collecting MSS. of the Testament.

The same to Sir Hans Sloane, Eng. pp. 264, 265. Recommending Mr. Wrichman as a fit person for a member of the Royal Society.

The

The same to an anonymous correspondent, 2 Letters. pp. 266—279. The first in Latin, on the Inscription on the Statue of Jupiter Urius:—the second, in English, on the Persian æra *Jounan* or *Yonane*.

The same to Hemsterhusius. Latin. pp. 280—318. The two letters on Hemsterhusius's edition of Julius Pollux, published by Ruhnkenius in the second edition of the *Elogium Tiberii Hemsterhusii*.

We are now come to the APPENDIX, which consists of an English letter of 12 pages from Dawes to Dr. Taylor, controverting his friend's assertion *that the Greeks expressed the power EI by the single vowel E*. In the conclusion, he gives this account of the original design of the MISCELLANEA CRITICA:

'I am preparing for the press a volume in the critical way, (which I shall desire the favour of you to revise) with the following inscription: Emendationes in Poetas Græcos, Aristophanem, Euripidem, Sophoclem, Æschylum, Callimachum, Theocritum, Pindarum, Hesiodum, Homerum. Premittitur dissertatio de præcipuis poetarum dramaticorum metris, uti et de accentibus cum ψευδωνυμοις tum veris. Hanc excipiunt animadversiones in Cl. Bentleii emendationes in duas priores Aristophanis Fabulas. In præfatione autem diseritur de aspiratione *Vau* prout in sermone Homerico obtinebat. Agmen extremum claudunt alteræ animadversiones in Phileleutheri Lipsiensis sive Bentleii Emendationes in Menandri & Philemonis Reliquias. I have a pretty large apparatus, out of which these emendations will be selected; upon Aristophanes in particular about 1500.'

A title-leaf announces *Notes* from the editor; which, however, do not yet appear. For their present omission a reason is stated, which must be allowed to be valid, but the existence of which every lover of learning will regret *.

In now closing this valuable collection, we must express our hopes that its circulation will in due time be as unconfined as its merits are pre-eminent; and we must not omit to pay a deserved compliment to the artists who have contributed to the splendor with which it appears. Portraits of Bentley and Grævius, and *fac-simile* engravings of their hand-writing, are annexed.

'* *Editoris, negotiis familiaribus magis impediti, quam ut hæc studia digne possit excolere, Notæ cum indicibus brevi sequentur.—Grenovici, in Com. Cantiano, Kal. Junii,* MDCCCVII.'

Dob.

ART.

ART. V. *Letters from England.* By Don Manuel Alvarez Espriella. Translated from the Spanish. 3 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

CUCULLUS non facit Monachum; neither will a Spanish cloak at a masquerade, nor a Spanish name in a title page, make a Spaniard. Ample internal evidence will be perceived by every discriminating reader, to convince him that the volumes before us could not have a Lusitanian origin; and the fact we understand to be that Mr. Southey and Mr. Duppa are the authors of the observations on England here presented to the public. This discovery, however, does not diminish any real merit which the remarks possess, though with some persons it may operate to abate curiosity. It is very probable that these gentlemen deemed it necessary to assume a foreign mask, in order to indulge with greater freedom in their reflections, thinking that their strictures and sarcasms would be more readily tolerated, when supposed to proceed from the prejudices of a Spaniard, than they would be if the real source had been avowed; and they no doubt supposed also that sentiments respecting English customs, laws, and manners, by a foreigner educated in a country and in a religion so different from our own, would excite peculiar interest.

Whatever may have been their motive, these pseudo-Spaniards have over-acted their part, and have betrayed such an intimate acquaintance with English literature, arts, politics, and sects, as a stranger just landed on our coasts could never have attained; and though in the character of Don Manuel Espriella they affect a violent antipathy to us as *heretics*, they unfortunately make him display a wider scope of ecclesiastical knowlege than a Spanish education ever evolves. Setting aside, however, all that respects the costume or *dressing* of these letters, and viewing them merely as spirited remarks on England, we must pronounce them to deserve in many respects the notice of English readers. They are not meant to flatter but to instruct; and, by removing the medium of national vanity and partiality, to enable us to see ourselves in a different glass from that which Englishmen professedly writing to Englishmen would venture to hold up. Naturally disposed to consider our country as *the best of all possible countries*, we do not sufficiently criticize our characteristic traits and numerous defects; and while our own travellers amuse us with the absurdities of foreign nations, we are not aware that we ourselves, on many accounts, are open to satirical animadversion. Yet, as already observed, we do not recognize the propriety of putting into the mouth of a Spaniard, and a layman,

dissertations

dissertations on our numerous religious sects; for this is a subject with which he could not possibly have been acquainted, and would not probably be interested. He might have compared our established worship with the *culte* of the Romish church, and, with the prejudices natural to a Catholic, have expressed his disapprobation of the want of splendor and ceremonies in the reformed religion: but he would not have descended to trace the shades of difference between our various dissenters, nor have felt his attention excited by disputes between Calvinists and Socinians; much less would he have hunted after Swedenborgians, Quakers, Methodists, Muggletonians, Universalists, Jumpers, &c. &c.

Though, however, this part of the work is improperly attributed to any *Don Manuel*, it ought not for this reason to be passed in silence. A Spaniard is made to deliver himself with more shrewdness, not only on medical but on sectarian mountebankery and fanaticism, than is usually displayed; and the ludicrous view in which both these topics are placed may serve in some measure to counteract these worse than follies. The growth of methodism, in particular, and the popularity and opulence of such a man as William Huntington, S. S. (Saved Sinner, according to his own interpretation, or *Sly-Sinner*, according to that of others,) afford a proof of the credulity of the multitude; while the success of the Evangelical or Calvinistic preachers, who declaim against self-righteousness as filthy rags, too strongly proves that the English people are not displeased to find that moral qualities are greatly *under par* in the spiritual market, and that good works may with little risk be kicked out of doors. To the Established Church, the rapid progress of Methodism, under the fostering influence of *Evangelical Preaching*, is an alarming circumstance; and whether called to an examination of it by a Catholic or a Protestant, her guardians ought not to decline the task. As offering the remarks of an acute observer, who is acquainted with mankind, this portion of the present volumes will not be disregarded by those who, looking through the disguise, can penetrate the real aim of the author; which is to shew that the Establishment is in less danger from the Socinians, against whom they are most hostile, than from other quarters.

'With the Socinians all the hydra brood of Arianism and Pelagianism, and all the anti-calvinist Dissenters have united; each preserving its own peculiar tenets, but all agreeing in their abhorrence of Calvinism, their love of unbounded freedom of opinion, and in consequence their hostility to any church establishment. All, however, by this union, and still more by the medley of doctrines which are preached as the pulpit happens to be filled by a minister of one persuasion or the other, are insensibly modified and assimilated to

each other; and this assimilation will probably become complete, as the older members, who were more rigidly trained in the orthodoxy of heterodoxy, drop off. A body will remain respectable for riches, numbers, erudition, and talents, but without zeal and without generosity; and they will fall asunder at no very remote period, because they do not afford their ministers stipends sufficient for the decencies of life. The church must be kept together by a golden chain; and this, which is typically true of the true church, is literally applicable to every false one. These sectarians call themselves the enlightened part of the Dissenters; but the children of Mammon are wiser in their generation than such children of light.

'From this party, therefore, the church of England has nothing to fear, though of late years its hostility has been erringly directed against them. They are rather its allies than its enemies, an advanced guard who have pitched their camp upon the very frontiers of infidelity, and exert themselves in combating the unbelivers on one hand, and the Calvinists on the other. They have the fate of Servetus for their warning, which the followers of Calvin justify, and are ready to make their precedent. Should these sworn foes to the establishment succeed in overthrowing it, a burnt offering of anti-trinitarians would be the first illumination for the victory *.'

Waiving the serious subject of religion, we shall now briefly advert to a few of the observations of this pretended Spaniard on other topics. With some humour, he descants on the *oikophobia*, as he calls the English rage for leaving home and going to *watering-places*, and for picturesque travelling. We give a specimen of his ridicule of the former:

'The English migrate as regularly as rooks. Home-sickness is a disease which has no existence in a certain state of civilization or of luxury, and instead of it these islanders are subject to periodical fits of what I shall beg leave to call *oikophobia*, a disorder with which physicians are perfectly well acquainted, though it may not yet have been catalogued in the nomenclature of nosology.

'In old times, that is to say, two generations ago, mineral springs were the only places of resort. Now the Nereids have as many votaries as the Naiads, and the tribes of wealth and fashion swarm down to the sea coast as punctually as the land crabs in the West Indies march the same way. These people, who have unquestionably the best houses of any people in Europe, and more conveniences about them to render home comfortable, crowd themselves into the narrow apartments and dark streets of a little country town, just at that time of the year when instinct seems to make us, like the lark, desirous of as much sky-room as possible. The price they pay for these lodgings is exorbitant; the more expensive the place, the more numerous are

* A writer, who could reason thus philosophically and politically on religion, could never be such a bigot as seriously to believe that 'the Protestant dead are in a place from whence there is no redemption.' Vol. i. p. 224.

the

the visitors; for the pride of wealth is as ostentatious in this country as ever the pride of birth has been elsewhere. In their haunts, however, these visitors are capricious; they frequent a coast some seasons in succession, like herrings, and then desert it for some other, with as little apparent motive as the fish have for varying their track. It is fashion which influences them, not the beauty of the place, not the desireableness of the accommodations, not the convenience of the shore for their ostensible purpose, bathing. Wherever one of the queen bees of fashion alights, a whole swarm follows her. They go into the country for the sake of seeing company, not for retirement; and in all this there is more reason than you perhaps have yet imagined.

'The fact is, that in these heretical countries parents have but one way of disposing of their daughters, and in that way it becomes less and less easy to dispose of them every year, because the modes of living become continually more expensive, the number of adventurers in every profession yearly increases, and of course every adventurer's chance of success is proportionately diminished. They who have daughters take them to these public places to look for husbands; and there is no indelicacy in this, because others who have no such motive for frequenting them go likewise, in consequence of the fashion,—or of habits which they have acquired in their younger days. This is so general, that health has almost ceased to be the pretext. Physicians, indeed, still send those who have more complaints than they can cure, or so few that they can discover none, to some of the fashionable spas, which are supposed to be medicinal because they are nauseous; they still send the paralytic to find relief at Bath dr to look for it, and the consumptive to die at the Hotwells: yet even to these places more persons go in quest of pleasure than of relief, and the parades and pump-rooms there exhibit something more like the Dance of Death than has ever perhaps been represented elsewhere in real life.'

No student of Salamanca, or Alcala, could on a cursory survey of this island have held the mirror up to us with so much effect as this soi-disant Spaniard; who was aware, before he sat down to write, of the points on which we were most open to animadversion, and of the particulars which would operate against the high praise that we are apt to bestow on ourselves and *the land in which we live.* The state of the Poor, and the little progress of amelioration among that large class of society, are represented as strong facts against our boasted improvement in civilization. Our manufacturing system * is reprobated for its inevitable tendency to increase the number of paupers; and while the Bank is called our *Holy of Holies*, on account of our devotedness to Mammon,

* The present reign is said to be 'the great epoch of the rise of manufactures and the decline of every thing else.' Vol. I. p. 184.

a serious concern is expressed at the frequent executions for forgery; which, it is thought, might be prevented by increasing the difficulty of ~~execut~~ing that fraud:

accomplish

'Surely, it is the duty of the Bank Directors to render the commission of forgery as difficult as possible. This is not effected by adopting private marks in their bills, which, as they are meant to be private, can never enable the public to be upon their guard. Such means may render it impossible that a false bill should pass undiscovered at the Bank, but do not in the slightest degree impede its general circulation. What is required in something so obvious that a common and uninstructed eye shall immediately perceive it; and nothing seems so likely to effect this as a plan which they are said to have rejected,—that in every bill there should be two engravings, the one in copper, the other in wood, each executed by the best artist in his respective branch. It is obvious that few persons would be able to imitate either, and highly improbable that any single one could execute both, or that two persons sufficiently skilful should combine together. As it now is, the engraving is such as may be copied by the clumsiest apprentice to the trade. The additional expence which this plan would cost the Bank would be considerably less than what it now expends in hanging men for an offence, which could not be so frequent if it was not so easy. The Bank Directors say the Pater-noster in their own language, but they seem to forget that one of the petitions which He who best knew the heart of man enjoined us to make is, that we may not be led into temptation.'

We pride ourselves on the magnitude, wealth, and splendor of our metropolis: but the reflection, which is here supposed to be suggested on a bird's eye view of London from the top of St. Paul's, contains much truth, and more than a mere bird of passage could have an opportunity of discovering:

'It was a sight which awed me and made me melancholy. I was looking down upon the habitations of a million of human beings; upon the single spot whereon were crowded together more wealth, more splendor, more ingenuity, more worldly wisdom, and alas! more worldly blindness, poverty, depravity, dishonesty, and wretchedness, than upon any other spot in the whole habitable earth.'

Birmingham, as the region of curious manufactures, is painted in even more forbidding colours:

'I cannot pretend to say, what is the consumption here of the two-legged beasts of labour; commerce sends in no returns of its killed and wounded. Neither can I say that the people look sickly, having seen no other complexion in the place than what is composed of oil and dust smoke-dried. Every man whom I meet stinks of train-oil and emery. Some I have seen with red eyes and green hair; the eyes affected by the fires to which they are exposed, and the hair turned green by the brass works. You would not, however, discover any other resemblance to a Triton in them, for water is an element with

with the use of which, except to supply steam engines, they seem to be unacquainted.

'The noise of Birmingham is beyond description; the hammers seem never to be at rest. The filth is sickening: filthy as some of our own old towns may be, their dirt is inoffensive; it lies in idle heaps, which annoy none but those who walk within the little reach of their effluvia. But here it is active and moving, a living principle of mischief, which fills the whole atmosphere and penetrates every where, spotting and staining every thing, and getting into the pores and nostrils. I feel as if my throat wanted sweeping like an English chimney. Think not, however, that I am insensible to the wonders of the place:—in no other age or country was there ever so astonishing a display of human ingenuity: but watch-chains, necklaces, and bracelets, buttons, buckles, and snuff-boxes, are dearly purchased at the expense of health and morality; and if it be considered how large a proportion of that ingenuity is employed in making what is hurtful as well as what is useless, it must be confessed that human reason has more cause at present for humiliation than for triumph at Birmingham.'

With the same hyperbolical aversion to manufactures, Manchester is noticed; and it is added as a general remark:

'We purchase English cloth, English muslins, English buttons, &c. and admire the excellent skill with which they are fabricated, and wonder that from such a distance they can be afforded to us at so low a price, and think what a happy country is England! A happy country indeed it is for the higher orders; no where have the rich so many enjoyments, no where have the ambitious so fair a field, no where have the ingenious such encouragement, no where have the intellectual such advantages; but to talk of English happiness is like talking of Spartan freedom, the Helots are overlooked. In no other country can such riches be acquired by commerce, but it is the one who grows rich by the labour of the hundred.'—

'Wealth flows into the country, but how does it circulate there? Not equally and healthfully through the whole system; it sprouts into wens and tumours, and collects in aneurisms which starve and palsy the extremities.'

The large proportion of our population, which receives parochial aid, affords too much ground for this pointed remark; and we bring into notice this feature of the publication, though the sentiments are extravagantly expressed, because the only effectual method of benefiting the condition of the Country-Poor is by raising the price of their labour.

Don Manuel is supposed to land at Falmouth, to travel through Exeter and Salisbury to London, and thence to Oxford, Worcester, Birmingham, Manchester, the Lakes, York, Lincoln, Cambridge, &c., and back to the metropolis. On his return, he is made to visit Bath, Bristol, Bridgwater, Plymouth, and, at the place at which he first sprang on English

ground, to take ship for Spain. Composed as these letters have been in England, they contain many particulars of which the generality of our countrymen are ignorant; and they are interspersed with anecdotes and *bon mots*, which, though not always accurate nor uncommon, enliven the narrative and produce a good effect. The reply of the celebrated engineer Brindley, to the question put to him in the House of Commons: "For what purpose do you think that rivers were created?" is incorrectly stated to be, (Vol. 2. p. 157) "To feed navigable canals:" his real answer was,—"The Almighty never designed rivers for navigation, but only to serve as drains to a country."

By the studied analysis which is here given of every species of fanaticism and religious madness that has arisen in this country, we are led to conclude that the authors wish to see some cure of these mental epidemics attempted, and the public mind brought into a sounder state: but, with all our boast of being an enlightened nation, the *signs of the times* are too indicative that we are a people as easily deluded as any in Europe.

Mo.y.

ART. VI. *Plantarum Guianæ Rariorum Icones et Descriptiones*, &c. *i e.* Figures and Descriptions of some of the rarer Plants of Guiana hitherto unpublished, by Edward Rudge, Esq., Fellow of the Royal and Linnean Societies of London. Folio. 4 Fasciculi. 15s. each Fasciculus, containing 12 Plates. White.

THE chance of war, as the author informs us, in a preface of elegant Latin, brought the plants which are the subject of this work into a British port. A French ship, loaded partly with cotton wool, but chiefly with a splendid collection of various objects of Natural History which had been made in Guiana by the order and at the expence of the French Government, was taken in 1803 by two of our privateers, on her passage to France, where the collection was destined to enrich the National Museum at Paris. On the arrival of the prize in the Thames, the whole cargo, after the usual preliminary forms, was brought to public sale for the benefit of the captors. The living plants, which constituted a valuable part of this collection, seemed at this time, from want of water, to be in such a state of decay as almost to preclude the hope of saving a single specimen: but they were transported to the Royal Gardens at Kew, where, by means of shelter and the application of artificial heat under the judicious management of Mr. Aiton, they soon began to revive, and were at last restored to their former luxuriance and vigour. The plants

thus recovered were purchased by his Majesty; and the motive by which the Royal munificence was actuated, as the author seems to hint, was equally honourable in itself and generous and just to the nation, as well as to the unfortunate naturalists whom the fate of war had thus despoiled of the rich fruits of their painful labours. They were to be reserved till the return of peace, when some of them might be restored to their proper owners.

Besides the living plants, the naturalists employed on the expedition had, with uncommon industry, prepared a *Hortus Siccus* of such magnitude that it required eight large boxes to contain it. This magnificent *Herbarium* was purchased at the expence of the author and four other botanical friends, for 550 guineas. The specimens, which had been prepared and put up with the utmost care and neatness, were in the highest state of preservation. Neither mildew, the consequence of external damp or of moisture arising from the plant itself, nor the destructive ravages of insects, had produced the slightest injury in obliterating the colours or mutilating the forms of the rich contents of this copious *Herbarium.* The high state of perfection in which the specimens appeared,—superior, as Mr. R. observes, to any thing of the kind that he had formerly witnessed,—led him to conjecture that they must have been dried rapidly by means of hot-iron.—The remaining part of the collection, we may add, was composed of various animals; among which were many curious insects, and also some beautiful birds, peculiarly distinguished by the rich and gaudy plumage with which nature has adorned the feathered tribes in tropical regions. The latter, retaining all the brilliancy and splendor of their colours, were in such fine order as to emulate in a great degree the appearance of the living animal.

Urged by the repeated solicitations of many of his friends, Mr. Rudge undertook the task of preparing for the public eye figures and descriptions of some of the dried specimens which appeared to be new discoveries. For this purpose, he received the liberal assistance of Sir Joseph Banks, and had the advantage of consulting the extensive *Herbarium* of that distinguished patron of science. Here also Mr. Rudge acknowleges his obligations to two other eminent botanists, Mr. Dryander and Mr. Salisbury; to the latter of whom he is indebted for the observations which are here furnished relative to the affinities.—Such is a short historical view of the origin and progress of Mr. Rudge's labours in the work under consideration. Of the book itself we shall now lay before our readers a very brief account.

The four Fasciculi hitherto published contain fifty figures of plants which are to be accounted new discoveries. Of this number, one new genus, including a single species, has been formed; and to this new genus the denomination Erisma is given, from the Greek verb ερειδω *I support*, on account of the *bracteæ* or small leaves which form an elegant support to the flowers. That our botanical readers may be enabled to judge for themselves of the grounds on which Mr. Rudge proceeds in constituting this new genus, and as a specimen of his descriptive language, we shall quote at length his account of the generic characters of Erisma, as well as those of the species comprehended under it:

'ERISMA.

'Monandria Monogynia.

'CHAR. ESSEN.

'Calyx *quadripartitus, inæqualis.* Petala *duo, inæqualia: superius calyce, confluens, basi corniculatum; inferius disco pericarpii pone filamentum insertum fructus dispermus.*

'CHAR. NAT.

'CALYX: Perianthium *monophyllum, persistens, utrinque pubescens, quadripartitum, laciniis inæqualibus: una multo longior, parabolica, obtusa, quæ petalum majus fulcit; reliquæ acutiores, semilanceolatæ.*

'COROLLA: Petala *duo inæqualia, opposita, ambo emarginata: superius calyce confluens inter lacinias minores, latum, subrotundum, basi desinente in* Nectario *corniculato obtuso, longitudine petali, instar calycis extus pubescente; inferius disco pericarpii pone filamentum fertile insertum, latius triplo longius,*

'STAMINA: Filamenta *quinque: unum fertile, longum, incurvum, fundo calycis (sive potius receptaculo dilatato) insertum: quatuor reliqua castrata, brevissima. Anthera oblonga, anguste sagittata.*

'PISTILLUM: Germen *inferum, uniloculare, oblongum:* Stylus *filiformis, adscendens, filamento brevior:* Stigma *obtusum.*

'PERICARPIUM *non vidi.*

'SEMINA *in germine tantum duo oblonga.*

'Obs. *Ordo naturalis mihi latet: cum Guttiferis nullam habet affinitatem. In flore clauso nectarium sursum spectat, in expanso petalum majus dependet, ubi diversam habet faciem.*

'*Species,* ERISMA FLORIBUNDA.

'*E. foliis parum obovatis, paniculis amplissimis, petalis emarginatis.*

'CAULIS *teres adhuc tenellus pube fuscâ stellatâ (ut in Malvaceis) obsitus.* STIPULÆ *parvæ deciduæ.* FOLIA *opposita vel subopposita, parumo bovata, nunc ovalia, obtuse acuminata, supra glabra, subtus lævia, nervosa.* FLORES *terminales, trichotome paniculati, ramis ramulisque plerumque oppositis.* Bracteæ *duæ, valde inæquales, unâ minimâ, pubescentes.* PEDICELLI *crassi, brevissimi.* CALYX: Perianthium *monophyllum, quadripartitum; laciniis oblongis, dense pubescentibus, unâ multo longiore.* COROLLA: Petala *opposita, emarginata: superius in nectarium corniculatum*

corniculatum fundo calycis confluens fauceque barbatum productum: inferius multo longius, unguiculatum. STAMINA: Filamentum *fertile petalo inferiori oppositum, parum attenuatum: Sterilium interdum tantum duo vel tres adsunt.* Anthera *sagittata.* STYLUS *longus, apice incurvus.*'

Of the new species, we shall barely mention the names, under the class, order, and genus, to which they respectively belong.

Monand. Monog. MARANTA: 3 new species; *Obliqua*, *Gracilis*, and *Petiolata.*

Diand. Trig. PIPER: 6 new species; *Fasciculare*, *Myosuroides*, *Eucalyptifolium*, *Angustum*, *Flexuosum*, and *Dumosum.*

Triand. Monog. HIPPOCRATEA: 2 new species; *Malpighiæfolia* and *Emarginata.* SCHOENUS: 4 new species; *Globosus*, *Longifolius*, *Fragiferus*, and *Floridus.* CYPERUS: 3 new species, *Amentaseus*, *Stellatus*, and *Tubæflorus.* SCIRPUS: 3 new species; *Tenuifolius*, *Pulcher*, and *Bromeliæfolius.* CENCHRUS: one new species; *Marginalis.*

Triand. Digyn. PASPALUM: one new species; *Gracile.* PANICUM: 3 new species; *Amplexicaule*, *Commelinæfolium*, and *Scoparium.* ARISTIDA: one new species; *Elegans.*

Tetrand. Monog. ROPALA: 3 new species; *Hameliæfolia*, *Pinnata*, and *Nitida.* POTHOS: 3 new species; *Gracilis*, *Cannæfolia*, and *Sagittæfolia.*

Pentand. Monog. VIOLA: one new species; *Orchidefolia.* SOLENA: 2 new species; *Latifolia*, and *Gracilis.* PSYCHETRIA: one new species; *Quadrifolia.* CEPHAELIS: 2 new species; *Justiciæfolia*, and *Dichotoma.* SCHRADERA: one new species; *Ligularis.* CORDIA: one new species; *Panicularis*, BUMELIA: one new species; *Cuneifolia.* CERBERA: one new species; *Triphylla.*

Hexand. Monog. MNASIUM: 2 new species; *Unilaterale*, and *Spherocephalum.* BROMELIA: one new species; *Longifolia.* TILLANDSIA: one new species; *Bromeliæfolia.*

Cryptogam. Filices. TRICHOMANES: one new species; *Elegans.* DANÆA: one new species; *Simplicifolia.*

The accession of fifty new species, even to the immense list of plants already known and described, will, we doubt not, be highly acceptable to the lovers of botanical science. It is, however, to be wished that something had been supplied relative to the habits and economy, or at least that the *habitats* of the new species had been noted. This would have formed a valuable addition to the information communicated by the author. We are at the same time aware that this would probably be imposing a task on Mr. Rudge which only the naturalists, by whose industry the collection was made, could perform: for it does

not appear that any of the papers, in which the circumstances above mentioned must have been recorded, as far as we can learn, fell into Mr. Rudge's possession; or, if they did, no use has been made of them. With a view to these advantages, we cannot but regret that the original publication did not take place under the immediate superintendance of the first proprietors: though in making this remark we by no means wish to detract from the value of Mr. Rudge's labours.

The drawings, from the pencil of Miss Anne Rudge, if an opinion can be formed without a comparison with the originals, seem to be executed with fidelity and accuracy. In some of them, indeed, we perceive a slight degree of stiffness and formality: but this we consider as the unavoidable consequence of drawing from dried specimens. The engravings, by Mr. Warner, are in a very commendable style, and the letter-press exhibits much neatness and elegance.

Mill-r.

1st Art.

ART. VII. *Letters on Natural History:* exhibiting a View of the Power, Wisdom, and Goodness of the Deity, so eminently displayed in the Formation of the Universe, and various Relations of Utility which inferior Beings have to the human Species. Calculated particularly for the Use of Schools, and young Persons in general of both Sexes; in order to impress their Minds with a just Idea of its Great Author. Illustrated by upwards of one hundred engraved Subjects applicable to the Work. By John Bigland, Author of "Letters on Universal History," &c. 12mo. pp. 448. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN a former volume of our Review, the Letters on Universal History by this author obtained a favourable notice. The correct and enlightened views, and the just and manly reflections, exhibited in that work, merited our thanks and applause; and it is not without regret that our duty imperiously requires us to bestow less unqualified approbation on the present performance.

The design of Mr. Bigland, which is to convey to youth in a familiar and pleasing form a general knowlege of Natural History, is highly laudable, because no study possesses more attractive charms, nor tends more to expand and enlarge the mind. As some of the objects of it, also, are constantly within our reach, no study will conduce more to form those habits of thinking and reflection, the acquisition of which must always be deemed of the first importance in the education of youth; since these are habits which may be the means of dissipating the tedious languor of many vacant hours in the progress of life, and of affording an agreeable and innocent relaxation from

from the severer duties of professional pursuits; or, directed to more serious investigations, may contribute materially to the enlargement of our knowlege and the extension of our resources. The proportion of books on this plan is comparatively small. A work, therefore, tolerably executed, and comprehending within a small compass a general view of the objects of Natural History, ought to be regarded as a valuable addition to the stock of British literature.

A perusal of this author's preface, in which he affects to despise every thing like systematic arrangement, did not lead us to augur very favourably of the execution of the undertaking. Systems and methods in Natural History, it is alleged, are calculated only for those who are entirely devoted to the science, not for those who take an occasional glance at any of its departments; and it is farther urged that it would be extremely irksome to study and understand the terms employed in discriminating the classes, orders, &c. of the objects of Natural History. Here the authority of Buffon is unfortunately quoted, who says, "that all our families and genera are made by ourselves, and not by Nature, who knows nothing of these distinctions." This is undoubtedly true: but it ought to be recollected that systematic arrangements are also made *for* ourselves, to guide our steps in exploring the varied phænomena of inanimate nature, and in acquiring some knowlege of the multifarious objects of the animated creation. We have said that Mr. B. is unfortunate in citing the opinion of Buffon in support of his objections. The irregularities and excesses of that sublime historian of nature are lost in the brilliancy of his genius: but a few rude strokes of the pencil, which pass unobserved in the grandeur and magnificence of a large and masterly composition, will offend the eye in a small drawing. Besides, it is perhaps unknown to the author that Buffon and his cotemporaries entertained a strong prejudice against the classification of the Swedish Naturalist; and that even his botanical arrangement, by far the most perfect part of his system, has comparatively been but lately introduced into France. It will hence appear that we entirely dissent from the opinion of Mr. B. with regard to the system of Linné, which he contemplates only as a monument of ingenuity and industry, while he totally overlooks its utility, and its tendency to encourage the study of Natural History, in consequence of the facilities which it offers for prosecuting that inquiry.

Mr. Bigland's work, as the title page announces, is arranged in the epistolary form, and consists of sixty two letters. In the first, he gives a correct view of the objects, extent, and

importance of Natural History; from which we quote the following appropriate observations:

'Natural History, or Natural Philosophy considered in its full extent, takes in an immense circuit, and comprises an innumerable variety of objects.—It describes the structure of the universe, the motions, magnitudes, and relative distances of the planets belonging to the solar system, and their distance from the sun round which they make their ceaseless revolutions. It then descends to the description of this globe which we inhabit, and which is called the earth, and exhibits to our contemplation its parts and production, from the greatest to the smallest objects. The beasts of the earth, the fishes of the sea, the fowls of the air, the various trees, plants and flowers that diversify the landscape, with an endless variety, all come within the limits of natural history. More need not be be said to convince you that such a study must be exceedingly interesting and agreeable. Every day you will discover new objects of attention; every excursion will present to your view a variety of scenes beautiful or sublime; at home or abroad, in your closet or in the field, you will possess in your mind a resource against ennui: you will never be at a loss for expedients for passing your time, nor be driven to seek amusement in the insipidity of the card-table, or the senseless roar of Bacchanalian revels.'

Here, however, we must remark that the author erroneously considers Natural History and Natural Philosophy as synonymous terms. Natural History is a descriptive view of nature in a state of repose: but Natural Philosophy is occupied in ascertaining the results and estimating the effects of the mutual actions of bodies; and this latter again admits of a subdivision into Mechanical and Chemical Philosophy, according to the nature of the result obtained. In those cases in which no change in the character of the bodies in action follows, the result of this action or the events observed will come under Mechanical Philosophy: but, when a change is produced in the character of the bodies in action, the history of this change or the account of the phænomena observed belongs to Chemistry.

The second letter includes the common divisions of natural bodies into the Mineral, Vegetable, and Animal kingdoms; an arrangement adopted by Linné from a fancied resemblance to the political state of society, and which, it must be acknowleged, is not without its quaintness. Mr. B. might have here noticed the more scientific arrangement followed by later naturalists, according to which all the objects of nature are divided into two great classes, *Organic* and *Inorganic*; the latter comprehending Minerals, and the former comprizing Vegetables and Animals.—Letter 3. is devoted to Astronomy.

in which the magnitude, periodical revolutions, and relative positions of the planets are briefly noted. Here the author details the common notion of the sun being a globe of fire, without any reference to the curious and interesting discoveries of Dr. Herschel; which prove that the body of the sun is opake, that it is surrounded by two atmospheres, that the one which is nearest to his body resembles the atmosphere of our earth, and that the most distant is luminous, affording light and heat to the whole planetary system, as well as to the sun himself, which is justly supposed to be a habitable body.

In the 4th Letter, Mr. B. treats of the earth, of mountains, and volcanoes; the 5th and 6th give a very brief and a very erroneous account of minerals; the 7th contains the history of the atmosphere; and the 8th is occupied in detailing some of the phænomena of earthquakes. The same letter also treats of the ocean, of the proportion of land and water, and of the tides. Nothing, surely, can shew more clearly than this enumeration of the subjects, in the order in which they are discussed, how much the author has disregarded perspicuous arrangement, and indeed seems to have set all method at defiance. What could be more obvious than to treat first of the atmosphere, next of the earth, and lastly of volcanoes and earthquakes, some of the phænomena of which are not altogether destitute of analogy?

We must here pause for a moment, to correct some egregious errors concerning the nature of metallic substances into which the author has fallen, from not consulting proper books on the subject: 'Gold (he says, at p. 18,) is the heaviest, purest, and most ductile of all substances;' and afterward, 'in gold mines there is often found another metal called platina, which is the heaviest of all substances.' Lest some of our readers should be at a loss to determine any thing from Mr. Bigland's equipoised knowlege of gold and platina, we must inform them that the latter is considerably heavier than the former.—The characters of copper given by Mr. Bigland are still more extraordinary. 'Copper is a hard, heavy and ductile-metal (so far correct), abounding with vitriol and an ill-digested sulphur called verdigrease.' (p. 19.) When copper is combined with vitriol, (we presume that sulphuric acid is here meant.) it is no longer in the metallic state, but in that of salt or sulphate of copper. What an ill-digested sulphur is, we cannot guess. Verdigrease is also a compound of copper and an acid, (the acetic,) but without a particle of sulphur. Iron, according to Mr. B., is a compound of different materials: (p. 19.) but iron, we must tell him, is a simple undecom-

undecompounded substance. At first, we supposed that the author might have mistaken an iron ore or an iron stone, both of which are really compounds: but he adds to the character which he gives of this metal, that it is ductile, so that he must mean the pure metal, because in the state of ore it possesses no ductility.—Steel, he says, 'is nothing but iron heated with red hot charcoal:' but steel is really a compound of iron and carbon, or the pure part of charcoal.—Lead is said to be 'a compound of earth and sulphur, together with a small portion of mercury:' but lead is also a simple substance; and Mr. B. will be surprised to be told that not a particle of mercury is to be found in our island, while lead is very abundant.—'The magnet, or loadstone,' he says, 'is a substance possessing no beauty, and somewhat resembling iron ore, but more compact and ponderous.' (p. 23.) Now the magnet is really an iron ore.—From what sources Mr. B. has derived his chemical and mineralogical knowlege, we are unable to conjecture, unless his researches have been directed to some of the alchemistical writings at the distance of three or four centuries; for we may challenge him to produce a single hint of such crude and 'ill digested' remarks, in any works on matters of this kind which have appeared within the last 50 years.

The subject of Vegetables is superficially discussed in letter 9th; the 10th is occupied with the natural history of the human race; and that of quadrupeds is detailed from letter 11th to 38th inclusive. The errors and omissions in letter 23d, which treats of the Elephant, require to be noticed and corrected. In Mr. Bigland's account of this noble animal, he seems to have been uncommonly assiduous in collecting all the wonderful stories of its strength and sagacity, which have been handed down from time immemorial, and copied from one author to another: but without the slightest notice of the latest and most authentic information which we possess respecting the natural history of the Elephant, derived from a paper by Mr. Corse, published in the Phil. Trans. for 1799, and which has been quoted not only in all our own, but also in most of the foreign periodical works. The omission is therefore totally unpardonable; for if the author's reading and researches did not lead him to the original source, yet, had he taken ordinary pains to obtain correct information on the subject on which he writes, he could scarcely have failed to stumble on it at second-hand. The first erroneous notion concerning the Elephant, which Mr. Corse's observations enable us to correct, relates to its size; which, according to common accounts, is from 12 to 18 feet in height. Mr. B. says that those of the Cape of Good Hope are from 12 to 15 feet;

feet: but we never understood that the Cape Elephants were larger than those of the interior of India, which Mr. Corse had an opportunity of examining; and that gentleman says that he never heard of one Elephant, whose measurement was well authenticated, which much exceeded 10 feet; while of 150 Elephants employed in the Mysore during the war with Tippoo Sultaun, not one of them reached ten feet, and a few of the males only were 9½ feet in height, The ordinary height of this animal seems to be from seven to nine feet.—The period of the Elephant's pregnancy is another fact ascertained by Mr. Corse's observations, and it is stated to be between 20 and 21 months,—in one case, 20 months and 18 days. It was formerly supposed, on the authority of Aristotle, to be two years.—Previously to the publication of Mr. C.'s paper, it had been asserted by all naturalists that the Elephant never propagated in a state of servitude, from a consciousness, as it seems to have been insinuated, of his degraded situation: but Mr. C.'s remarks clearly establish the fact that the tame Elephant is not less disposed to propagate, and not less qualified to perform all the functions connected with the continuation of its species, when circumstances are favourable, than any other domestic animal.—These are essential facts in the natural history of this extraordinary quadruped; and having had a very wide circulation, they are matters of such public notoriety, that the omission of them by a compiler on the subject is really inexcusable.

Letter 39. treats of amphibious quadrupeds, including the Otter, Beaver, Walrus, and Seal; and the 40th is devoted to the Bat kind: which Mr. B., proceeding on the notion of a chain of being, considers as the link between quadrupeds and birds. Twelve letters, from 41 to 52 inclusive, are occupied with the history of the latter description of animals. The 53d, which would have been in a more appropriate place at the end of the volume, contains general observations on animal bodies, with a particular reference to the striking marks of wisdom and design which are thus exhibited in the universe, and from which are deduced proofs of the existence of a supreme intelligent mind.

The four following letters comprehend the natural history of fishes. The Whale kinds are treated in the 54th, and the cartilaginous fishes in the 55th; and the 56th, and 57th, include the four Orders of Linné, whose classification the author has followed in this part of his work.——A very brief account of crustaceous animals, of shell fish, and of the pearl fishery, is given in the 58th letter. The history of reptiles is shortly discussed in the 59th, and the 60th contains

contains all that the author has said of serpents. The few insects noticed in this work are either of a noxious or destructive nature, as the Scorpion and Locust, or are useful to man, as the Bee and Silkworm. The 61st letter includes their history. The 62nd letter, with which the book closes, is employed in general reflections on the moral and religious sentiments, which a survey of the works of creation naturally inspires. From this part, we quote the passage concerning cruelty to animals, which, as it contains an important lesson, we recommend to the serious perusal of those to whom it is addressed:

'The object of all physical research ought to be moral and intellectual improvement; and indeed the study of nature, exalting our admiration, is peculiarly adapted to inflame our love for the Architect of the universe, the self-existent author of all existence. Our love of the Creator, however, cannot be more appropriately displayed than by the exercise of universal benevolence towards his creatures. This important moral truth I have every where endeavoured to inculcate; and let it, my dear Sir, be impressed on your mind, and kept in your memory, that

"———— the poor beetle that we tread upon,
In corporal suffering feels a pang as great
As when a giant dies."

'This effusion of poetry speaks no other language than that of accurate philosophy; for there is every reason to believe that the sensations of many of the most diminutive insects are as exquisite, and consequently their sufferings are as acute as those of larger animals. The writhings of the poor worm on which we accidently tread, evidently shew the pangs which it feels, shock the heart that is endowed with sensibility, and force it to lament the step which fortuitously caused these sufferings. Horrible, however, to relate, parents too frequently indulge their children in the wanton sport of torturing poor insects in a manner at which humanity must shudder. Although this horrid propensity may, at that early period of life, be attributed to want of reflection, yet, if indulged, it may settle into a habit of cruelty, and render their hearts callous not only to the sufferings of the brute creation, but to those of their own species. A parent, indeed, who encourages his child to torture a poor helpless insect, ought not to wonder, if he afterward see him a murderer of his fellow creature, which will very probably be the case, unless a want of courage, strength, or opportunity, prevent the exercise of his cruelty, or the terrific dread of the gallows restrain his hands.

"What more advance can mortals make in sin,
So near perfection who with blood begin?" Dryden.

'The supreme court of judicature at Athens, to its eternal credit, punished a boy for putting out the eyes of a bird that unfortunately fell into his hands; and parents and masters should never overlook an act of cruelty towards any thing that is endowed with life and

and sensation, however minute and contemptible it may seem.' (p. 442.)

This volume is accompanied by a number of plates: but the figures are small, and many of them are so indifferently executed in point of drawing and engraving, that we fear they will afford but little illustration of the various subjects. We cannot avoid remarking that the representation of a monkey *taking his glass*, and that of a parrot immured in his cage, are but quaint conceits; and although the one *may* have actually happened, and the other is no rare occurrence as a kind of useless pageantry in the train of civilized luxury, yet such incidents afford nothing characteristic of the natural habits of those animals.

The violations of grammar and orthography, of which the author has been guilty, are too numerous and too obvious to pass unnoticed;—we shall specify a few. 'Two parts of copper and one of zinc forms (form) brass,' p. 19.—'Spinning, weaving, and dying provides' (provide) &c. p. 40—'Chamoing' for Chamouny, p. 13.—'Barbgroussa' for Babyroussa, p. 129.—'*Thoraici*' for *Thoracici*, p. 401.—In the explanation of technical terms prefixed to the work, we remark one which is ludicrously erroneous: 'subulated' is said to be 'formed like an owl', instead of *like an awl.*—At p. 255, the writer also forced a smile from us by talking of Mr. *Addison* killing twenty-three green monkeys when he was in Africa. Mr. Bigland meant, or should have meant, Monsieur *Adanson.*

With the exceptions which we have fairly stated, and some others which our limits preclude us from noticing, we must add that those who have only commenced the study of natural history may derive both amusement and instruction from the perusal of these letters.

Mill-r.

ART. VIII. *Thoughts upon that Part of Revelations, which comprehends the History of the Western Empire of Europe,* from the Commencement of Popery to its Overthrow in 1796: comprehending a Series of 1260 Years. Shewing the Unity of the Prophecies of Daniel and Esdras with the Apocalypse; and their clear Explanation of the Events which are now acting in Christendom. By C. Goring, Esq., late of Bengal. 8vo. pp. 278. 6s. Boards. Walker. 1807.

SCEPTICS on the subject of the Apocalyptic visions will accuse Mr. Goring of taking that for granted, in his very title, which requires to be proved: they deny that any part of Revelations comprehends the history of the Western Empire

Empire, or that its uncouth emblems and hieroglyphics can, in the nature of things, afford a clear explanation of future events. Considering the difficulty of the enterprize, and the impracticable materials with which this gentlemen was endeavouring to work, we think that his title ought to have been, "*An attempt to shew that part of Revelations comprehends the history,*" &c. It is indeed surprising that any writer can engage in such a project with the faintest hope of success, if he reflects on the multitude who have failed before him, and on the impossibility of establishing any clear and fixed principles of interpretation, or of translating such grotesque imagery and emblematical painting into obvious and definable meaning. We do not here call in question the authenticity of this book: but the dissonance, which subsists among the legion who have ventured on its interpretation, will justify our doubts respecting its intelligibility. We have never yet seen any treatise which merits the title of *a Key to the Apocalypse.* The βιβλιον and βιβλαριον still remain sealed; and true critics will require something better than baseless conjectures and vague surmises, to explain what is meant by *Thunders, Trumpets, Seals, Vials,* &c.* It will not suffice us to be told that such and such images *must be* prophecies of such and such events. Our reply is *Negatur assumptio;* and now where are the materials for constructing a demonstration? The Commentator has not an inch of ground on which he can stand: but he mistakes fancy for facts, and dreams for discoveries. It was a proof of Calvin's judgment that he abstained from an exposition of the Revelations, and of Sir Isaac Newton's weakness that he attempted it. This undertaking of our great philosopher is an illustration of the poet's remark, that

"Unthought-of-frailties cheat us in the wise."

As a preliminary to the illustration of the Apocalyptic symbols, Mr. Goring, with many others, takes it as it were for granted that the "*last times,*" and the "*latter days*" mentioned in the Epistles must mean *our* times and *our* days: but, if the context be examined, and the testimony of ecclesiastical history consulted, this *postulatum* will be found altogether inadmissible. We know that the primitive Christians did not interpret the expressions, "the time is *at hand,*" and "the coming of the Lord *draweth nigh,*" to signify that, after the lapse of many, many centuries, the events pronounced by the prophetic spirit as being then at hand would take place. Had any one at that

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'* I have not, (says Mr. G.) entered into a discussion of the symbols of St. John:' but here the chief difficulty lies; a difficulty not yet solved.

period

period protruded such a gloss, would he not have exposed himself to general ridicule?

At the end of his address to the reader, Mr. G. informs us that he has *varied greatly* from those who have preceded him in attempting to explain the Revelations, having followed what he conceives to be the *only true mode of elucidation:* he does not, however, tell us in what way this *only true* mode of interpretation, which was hidden from his predecessors, was revealed to him: but he hopes, as he has kept his 'Reflections' in his drawer one year longer than Horace prescribes, the public will not deem them crude. We shall offer a few specimens of Mr. G.'s 'only true mode of elucidation.'

On Rev. x. verses 8, 9, 10, he observes: 'This little book was *undoubtedly* the book before us, and *a record of all human actions to the end of the world.*' If St. John saw all human actions to the end of the world, it is strange that he gave us no intimation of the discovery and christianizing of America.

It is asserted that, by *the Gentiles* who were decreed *to tread down the holy city for* 42 *months*, (Chap xi. 2.) are *surely* meant the army of Romish monks and priests, who from 536 to 1796, (a space of 1260 years) when the Pope was carried prisoner to France, tyrannized in the holy city. Every part, however, of this position is assailable by a host of objections. It may be questioned that 42 months mean 1260 years; and, if the fact be granted, we have no specific direction from what period to date their commencement. It is also a mere assumption to state that the holy city means the christian church, and that it is the object of the prophecy to point to the papal usurpations. Papists, how much soever they may have deviated from the simplicity of the gospel, are not Gentiles. They deny the application of this passage to them; and they may accuse Mr. G. of injustice, in reporting of them that 'they have a god of their own in the Pope, who places himself on the high altar to be worshiped as God.' If popery, as to its power, was annihilated in 1796, why is Mr. Goring so much alarmed at the thought of admitting Catholics to civil privileges? His fears and his convictions are at variance with each other.

By the *two witnesses*, (v. 4.) Mr. G. understands the Scriptures: but does this elucidation harmonize with the subsequent account of the witnesses, that "they have power over waters to turn them to blood?" Yes, says Mr. G., *waters* mean *people*, and they are *turned to blood*, when, in consequence of 'receding from the law of God, they appeal to the sword.' —"The *street* of the great city" (v. 8.) is judged to be *France*: but why, when the city is expressly said to be that

in

in which our Lord was crucified, i. e. Jerusalem? We may, indeed, venture to add that the whole account of the two witnesses cannot, by any interpretation that is admissible, be supposed for one instant to relate to two written volumes.

In v. 19 "temple of God" is said to 'mean men's minds;'—"thunderings" are 'doctrines;'—"lightnings" are 'convictions';—and "hail" means 'calamities'. "The moon" (Chap. xii. i.) signifies sensual pleasure. Was ever chaste Dian's symbol thus interpreted before?—"Michael" (v. 7. 8.) stands for 'the christian church,' and the "Dragon" for 'the heathen priesthood.'

Rev. xiii. verses 11—14 represent *the papacy*. "The mark of the beast" (v. 16. 17) is that of 'baptism,' and the number of his name in v. 18. viz. 666, is made to signify the same person whom Sir I. Newton would designate by his ΛΑ-ΤΕΙΝΟΣ, that is, the Pope; the numerals in whose title, VICARIUS FILII DEI, amount to the sum required.

The ἃ δεῖ γενέσθαι ἐν τάχει and the ὁ γὰρ καιρὸς ἐγγύς at the beginning of this book, and the ναὶ ἔρχομαι ταχύ at the conclusion, seem to prohibit the application of its prophecies to events at a very remote distance: but interpreters do not duly attend to these restrictive expressions.

Without proceeding farther, we presume that we have adduced sufficient evidence to enable the theological reader to judge of Mr. Goring's merit as an expounder of scriptural difficulties. We should not, indeed, have so much enlarged on this subject, had we not observed with concern the great waste of time, thought, and paper, made by interpreters of the Revelations; and did we not feel it a duty to repress that presumption by which various writers are animated in giving meaning to the apocalyptic visions, when not one of them has any solid ground on which he may erect his bold hypothesis.—We cannot say in this instance that "*fools rush in where wise men fear to tread*," because unfortunately some "wise men" have sanctioned this mode of interpretation: nor would we apply any harsh terms to a gentleman of Mr. Goring's respectability and apparent good intentions: but we caution the learned and the pious from setting such dangerous examples in future.

Mo-y.

ART. IX. *Saul;* a Poem. In Two Parts. By William Sotheby, Esq. 4to. pp. 190. 18s. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

"*WAITER*," said the milksop son of a Baronet of the last age, in a Coffee-house at Bath, "*Waiter! bring me some brandy and water; a little brandy and a great deal of water.*"

The

The gentleman was easily served; and they who prefer to have their literary thirst quenched, in like manner, by a little of the spirit of poetry diluted with a large dose of prosaic verse, will be exactly suited by Mr. Sotheby. As for ourselves, we are not partial to aqueous or water-gruel poetry, though we may be compelled in these times to be chary of our Brandy; and the Muse that gratifies us must imitate Quin's counter-order, "*Waiter, bring me some brandy and water—a great deal of brandy and a little water.*"

To dilate is not to invent; and the beautiful simplicity of scripture language appears with no additional charm, when bloated by incongruous epithets, and hoisted up on the stilts of heroic verse. If Mr. Sotheby meant to exhibit a specimen of his own patience, and to exercise that of his reader, he has succeeded; and if he be solicitous of putting both to a farther trial, we advise him to weave into heroics the 10th and 12th chapters of Nehemiah: but, if he intended to display the genuine graces of captivating poesy, and to render the details of sacred story more attractive, he has, in our judgment, completely failed. His Saul is a heavy and nerveless poem. It "drags its slow length along," like Pharoah's chariots deprived of their wheels; and the author tugs against the collar, the whole length of the journey. The effect is inversely as the effort; and we are surprised that, in this fastidious age, he could persuade himself that such a production would gratify the poetic reader. He must be aware that those parts of the Paradise Lost which consist merely of narratives from the Bible, put into blank verse, are rarely perused, and that nothing is gained by such transfusion. The history of St. Paul, as given in the Acts of the Apostles, though more varied and more replete with incidents than the life of Saul, would derive no additional interest from such management as this gentleman has exerted. His plan does not admit of invention, properly so called; and by amplifying and expanding, we only dilute the spirit by *a great deal of water.* We are anxious to discourage such attempts.

In the poem before us, Saul's madness occupies a great part of the first book, but the poet's delineation is laboured; almost the whole of the second is composed of distinct addresses by Abner to each of the tribes at Ephis-dammim; the entire argument of the third is, 'David sooths by his minstrelsy the troubled king, and slays Goliah;' and the fourth consists of 'a hymn to Jehovah, on the entry of the triumphant Israelites into Gibea, Saul's envy and hatred of David, and the dedication of the spoils.' The subjects of the second part are, 1. Saul, resolving to slay David, is prevented by

Jonathan;—Michal, Saul's youngest daughter, urges David's flight from Gibea;—Interview of Saul and David. 2. David defeats the enemies of Saul;—weds Michal;—is again persecuted by Saul;—is anointed king by Samuel;—foresees in vision the kings of Israel and Judah;—predicts the Messiah, 3. Samuel dies;—David again persecuted by Saul;—Jonathan's covenant with David at Ezel;—Interview of David and Michal;—David seeks refuge at Gath;—feigns himself mad; witnesses the rites of Ashtaroth and Moloch;—his deliverance from the Philistines. 4. The meeting of Saul and David at Engeddi;—Saul causes Ahimelech and the priests of the Lord to be slain;—the Philistines encamp nigh Gilboa;—Saul inquires of the witch of Endor;—the Israelites defeated;—Saul perishes, self-slain, on Gilboa;—David laments over Saul and Jonathan, is crowned at Hebron, and defeats his enemies.

Such is the substance of this epic poem;—of its execution we are bound in justice to the author, after the sentence which we have passed on it, to adduce a few specimens. Goliah of Gath thus hurls his defiance at the armies of Israel:

> 'So moved Goliah of Gath. And harsh the clang
> Rung of his brazen mail; and harsh his voice
> That heard of either army, cry'd aloud:
> "Stay ye the battle. Wherefore set ye out
> The armies in array? From Gath I come
> A Philistine. I sole defy your host.
> Chuse from your thousands, and ten thousands, one,
> One man confronting me. If fail this spear,
> Gath serves; but if Goliah's arm prevail,
> Your nation serves, slave of our Gathite lords."
> 'He spake, and brandishing aloft his spear,
> Stept in his might advancing.'

David's account of himself to Saul, on his first interview, after having accepted the challenge of Goliah, is thus rendered:

> "Hast thou ere seen the Champion? or, but caught
> From far, the terror of his voice?"
> "I heard
> His voice: it breath'd defiance against God.
> His stature I regarded not."
> Saul paus'd;
> Then graciously, with milder voice addrest
> The shepherd Youth: "Wage not the hazardous fight;
> In peace depart. I speak it not in scorn:
> Brave Youth! retire; and with thy presence greet
> Thy father's household. Not unhonour'd go;

Be

Be thine, this purple mantle. Ye proclaim
The King thus honour'd him. In peace depart!"
" Be honour mine, then only, when the Lord
Vouchsafes deliverance."
" Hast thou then no fear?"
" None. I have set my trust in God the Lord.
He is alone Almighty Of my sire,
Jesse, a Bethlemite, of Judah's tribe,
Are many born, and I, his youngest child.
My brethren serve in war. At home, my charge
To tend my father's flock. On my lone watch
It chanc'd, oh King! a lion and a bear
Seiz'd of my fold a lamb. Arm'd with my crook,
I follow'd, and I smote them, and brought back
The suckling from their jaws; and when the beasts
Rose up against me in their wrath, I caught
Each by the throat, and slew him. Thus they fell
Beneath thy Servant's hand. So, by my hand,
He who defies the armies of our God,
The uncircumcis'd, the Philistine shall fall
As one of those. The Lord, who from their jaws
Delivered me, Jehovah, from the hand
Will save me of the Philistine."
" Go forth,
Brave Youth! with thee, Jehovah! Arm'd like Saul
Confront the Champion. At thy sight, so mail'd,
The Philistine shall tremble."

David and Goliah now approach towards each other:

' Now front to front they met: the Gathite look'd
Around, nor foe discern'd, save that fair Youth
With staff and sling. " Am I a dog (he cry'd)
That thus thou com'st before me? Those I serve,
The Gods I serve, confound thee. The wild fowls
Of Heav'n, and beasts, shall banquet on thy flesh."
' The son of Jesse, answering: " Thou com'st arm'd
With sword, and spear, and shield; but I am come,
Come in Jehovah's name, by thee defy'd;
And I will slay thee, Philistine, in sight
Of either army. I will give, this day,
The carcasses of yon uncircumsis'd,
To air and earth a banquet. All shall know,
All earth shall know the battle is the Lord's,
And that the living God in Israel reigns!"
' He spake; and, as the Philistine advanc'd,
Ran forward, whirl'd the stone, and full in front
Smote. And the stone deep in his forehead sunk.
Dead, prone on earth Goliah thundering fell:
And David, hastening, on the giant corse
Stood; and unsheathing the proud champion's sword,

Smote off his head, and rais'd in triumph, wav'd
Aloft its ghastly horrors, dropping gore.'

Let us now transcribe, for our last extract, the interview of Saul with the Witch of Endor:

' Behold them, front to front, accursed both,
Saul, and the Sorceress. Her inquisitive gaze
Glar'd on him: and his eye-lid gradual sunk
Beneath her searching. Half resolv'd, the King
Spake:
" I entreat thee, at my pray'r, divine
By the familiar spirit, and bring up
Him, whom I name."—
" Thou know'st: what need to tell?
How from the living land Saul has cut off
Such as I am. Com'st thou to snare my life?"
' Each word the Sorceress spake, fell on Saul's heart.
At length: " So thou consent, and whom I name
Bring up, I swear, witness the Lord! for this,
Vengeance shall not o'ertake thee."
" Name the man."
" Samuel, the Prophet."
And the Prophet rose.
The Sorceress, at his rising, with loud cry
Shriek'd out, " Thou hast deceiv'd me: thou art Saul."
" Fear not; declare, what view'st thou?"
" I behold
Gods out of earth ascending."
" What the form?"
" The form of one in years comes up, with veil
O'ermantled."
Saul perceiv'd it was the Seer,
Stoop'd, and low bow'd his forehead to the ground.
" Why hast thou thus disquieted and brought
My spirit from its rest?"
Saul answering said,
" Oh, I am sore distrest. Philistia's host
Gathers against me. Terror fills the realm,
God is departed from me, nor vouchsafes
Answer by dream or Prophet. Therefore, Seer,
Thus, I have call'd on thee."
" Wherefore on me,
If God is *clean* departed, and become
Thy foe? What God by me foretold, is done,
Thy kingdom from thee rent. In David's rule
Thy sceptre. For that thou, oh man, didst scorn
Obedience to Jehovah, thee, and thine,
And Israel's army, into hostile hands
God has deliver'd. Yea, to morrow, Saul,
Thy sons and thou, all, from the living land

Pass

Pass off!" He spake, and vanish'd. Saul on earth
Fell prone.'

We deem it altogether unnecessary, in this case, to descend to verbal criticism. The evidence which we have here produced is sufficient to shew that this poem is radically defective; and it is so slightly raised above mere prose, and accomplishes so little by its interpolated epithets and measured periods, that most readers will prefer the simplicity of the Bible-narration to this new-fashioned scripture.

That we may not, however, dismiss Mr. Sotheby altogether ungraciously, we shall take this opportunity of observing that the dedication of the first part of his poem to his wife has considerable beauty; and we shall cheerfully transcribe it, to obliterate in some measure the impression which the above extracts have made:

' How, as I grace with Thee my opening lay,
How, with what language, Mary! may I greet
Thy matron ear, that truth's pure utterance meet
Sound not like Flattery? In life's youthful day,
When to thy charms and virgin beauty bright
I tun'd my numbers, Hope, enchantress fair,
Trick'd a gay world with colours steep'd in air,
And Suns that never set in envious night.
Ah! since that joyous prime, beloved Wife!
Years, mix'd of good and ill, have o'er us past:
And I have seen, at times, thy smile o'ercast
With sadness. Not the less my lot of life
With thee has been most blissful.—Heavenly Peace,
Thy guardian angel, Mary! has beguil'd
My woe, and sooth'd my wayward fancy wild.
Nor shall its soothing influence ever cease,
Thou present, weal or woe, as may, betide!
Hail Wife and Mother, lov'd beyond the Bride.'

If Mr. S. had written thus throughout, the reader would not have exclaimed, ~~with David~~, as now he probably will, *"Saul! Saul! why persecutest thou me?"*

Mon.

ART. X. *An Ethical Treatise on the Passions*, founded on the Principles investigated in the *Philosophical Treatise* *. By T. Cogan, M.D. 8vo. pp. 495. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

THE course of metaphysical and moral analysis, pursued by Dr. Cogan in his former volume, is ably and succes-

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* See M. Rev. Vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 81.

fully continued in the present; in which his claims to consideration as an acute and impartial observer, and as a dispassionate and discriminating judge, will be found in no respect to have diminished. The displays of general information, and the instances of felicity of style, which distinguished his preceding pages, are equally frequent in those that are now before us. He perseveres in taking no side, and steers clear of all systems, though he disdains no aids which the industry or the ingenuity of the disciples of any of them have brought to light. Men of a theoretical turn, indeed, will probably feel disappointed, on finding him studiously evading all decision on the great questions that belong to the subjects of which he treats, and which have so much divided the learned and frequently agitated the public. So completely does he abstain from committing himself in this respect, that we at one time imagine the discarded Common Sense of the North to have found an advocate in him; while at another, we are led to believe that he has surrendered to that philosophy which traces all the phænomena of mind to the grand law of association. From this latter bias, in fact, which is so generally that of the philosophers of our day, we are not left merely to conjecture when we declare that he is not wholly free: but for the partiality which he shews to Dr. Reid, we may easily account, as being a just tribute to the ingenuity and industry of that writer, and to the numerous valuable observations which enrich his works, unconnected with his crude hypothesis on the subject of the human mind.

The labours of Dr. Cogan may be considered as sketching the geography of mind. It is the object of his performances to mark boundaries, to trace grand divisions, to give a view of the general aspect of the country, to ascertain the qualities of the soil, to determine what it owes to the hand of nature, and to ascertain that for which it is indebted to art. He notes errors in the management of its economy, and suggests improvements in this important department. If the discussion leaves all others behind in importance, we are warranted in saying that this consideration is deeply felt by the author, and that he has proved himself worthy of the arduous task of descanting on it. The observations which he makes in his preface, on this topic, well deserve attention:

> 'It is always pleasant to discover some degree of order, in the midst of apparent confusion; to trace the evidences of a regular system, where confusion seemed to be most predominant; and to remark final causes where accident or caprice were supposed to be most triumphant. But the study of the passions and affections of the human mind, has a much more important object than these. It is

is not confined to the mere contemplation of a force, which we all acknowledge, and all have felt, both by its salutary and pernicious influence; it is a study which also enables us to direct the impetus of the mind to its proper objects, temper the degrees of its energy, to the peculiarities of the case, and place the more permanent affections on those things which cannot deceive or disappoint. For, although speculations of a philosophical nature may amuse and flatter, it is UTILITY alone which makes every species of knowledge of sterling value. Whatever honours we may be disposed to confer upon distinguished exertions of intellect, without UTILITY, all the labours of the learned, are but more reputable amusements; and the most splendid discoveries of philosophy, unless they be as operative as charity in the promotion of good, are but "as sounding brass or a tinkling cymbal."—

'Since the passions and affections are so numerous, complicated, various, and opposite; since they may be excited by such an infinitude of causes, and are frequently productive of the most momentous consequences; since every object with which we are connected, or which presents itself at any time to the mind, may possibly call forth some affection, and have some influence on our well-being; it is obvious that the study of the passions and affections, to the extent which the subject requires, must be a labour of patience, perseverance, and indefatigable attention.'

Dr. C. then gives this account of the plan which he has pursued in the present treatise:

'It presents us with a view of human nature in a progressive series, from the first desire after well-being—which in reality is synchronous with the first desire that is formed,—through its various attempts, struggles, and contests, and into its many pernicious aberrations, with their causes. It next introduces us to the contemplation of those intellectual powers, with which we are endowed by the beneficent Author of our nature; by which we are enabled to remedy the physical and moral evils surrounding us; to form accurate ideas concerning the nature of that happiness we are perpetually desiring; to discover the line of conduct requisite for the attainment of it; to trace the number and appreciate the importance of those motives which ought to influence every rational creature, at every period of his existence, and in the midst of every seduction; and thus securely conduct us to the possession of all that good which human beings are rendered capable of enjoying.'

Our readers may be assured by us that the author has realized the pretensions which he modestly prefers in the subsequent passage;

'That so arduous an undertaking is very imperfectly accomplished, the author readily admits; but a conviction of the importance of pursuing the mode adopted has induced him to make the attempt. He confesses that all his hopes of success depend upon his determination not to use any important term without explaining his conceptions of its precise meaning; not to assume any thing as a fact which has not been proved; firmly, and yet cautiously to pursue

admitted *data* to whatever conclusions they obviously lead; to trace consequences, as much as possible, from their source to their extent; and thus carefully to peruse the history of human nature, and make a faithful report.'

Three disquisitions form the contents of this volume, in which the author treats of, I. *The Agency of the Passions in the Pursuit of Well-being*, (a judicious expression in a philosophical treatise, and preferable to the common and too extensive term *happiness*). II. *On the intellectual Powers of the Mind, as Guides and Directors in the Pursuit of Well-being. III. Inquiry into the Nature and Sources of Well-being.*

The line of inquiry pursued under each of these heads is thus stated:

'When we consider human nature as in pursuit of happiness, the following subjects present themselves as being most worthy of our attention. It is requisite to inquire what is the proper office and what are the uses of the passions, emotions, affections, and particular predilections, in this important pursuit: in what their irregularities and pernicious influence consist; and to what causes they are to be ascribed:

'To investigate those powers of nature, with which we are endowed, in order to direct us in the pursuit of well-being:

'It is also necessary to form accurate ideas concerning the nature of well-being; what are the degrees of good to which humanity may attain; and from what sources is this good to be derived: and also concerning the nature and degrees of misery to which we are exposed, and the causes to which it may be ascribed.'

The object of the work is to note particulars; and this is also its chief merit, and that feature to which it principally owes its superior interest. We cannot better characterize it than by saying that it is philosophy giving instructions for the formation of the human character. Intelligent and well disposed parents and guardians, and ingenuous youths, will obtain a richer fund of practical information in this and the previous performance of the author, than is to be found in any volumes of the same bulk with which we are acquainted; and happy will those be who diligently peruse them, and guide their conduct by the councils which they contain!

We regard Dr. Cogan as eminently happy in his definitions and descriptions; and if his work had no other use than that of assisting our conceptions in this way, it would be intitled to a considerable share of notice.—It is impossible to state more neatly what education is, than it is accomplished in the succeeding short passage:

'The professed object of education is to furnish the mind with competent knowledge, and enable it duly to appreciate whatever appears useful and interesting. It is this which either communicates, or strengthens

strengthens and exalts, a particular cast of character; cherishes the best affections, and directs them to their proper objects; calls forth every valuable talent; introduces confirmed habits, in whatever is useful or excellent; renders that familiar and pleasant which is to be the principal occupation in life, or which may render our station in it respectable and beneficial.'

The temper of true philosophy manifests itself in the first of the ensuing paragraphs; and the second exhibits to advantage the author's habits of observation, and his powers of description;

'Long attachments, and the love of novelty, have a natural tendency to counterbalance each other. Were it not for the force of habit, we should be carried away by every novelty, and be making perpetual changes, without any advancement: were we not allured by novelties, we should never emerge from the lowest state, to which we had been familiarized by customs and habits. The reluctance we experience to deviate from the paths to which we have been long accustomed, may sometimes prevent us from walking in one that is better, but it frequently prevents us also from losing our way; when the nature of the attractive novelty is well ascertained, and it is found to possess qualities productive of utility, then does our attachment to customs and habits become inveterate and pernicious; whereas the changes to which we are prompted by novelty alone, expose us to the loss of what we already possess, without supplying an equivalent.

'The *Love of Fashion* is manifestly an adventitious, not a primary principle in our nature. In its excess it is a sickly perversion of the social principle. It is generated by an union of a fondness for novelty, with the love of imitation; and it partakes of the vices of each parent rather than of their virtues; possessing the fickleness of the former and the servility of the latter. In its more moderate and legitimate influence, it may communicate occasional pleasure, by the introduction of an agreeable variety; but this variety, to be agreeable, must neither be violent nor rapid. It frequently calls forth the talents of various artists, and has thus afforded temporary advantages to thousands. But, enjoying arbitrary power, like every other tyrant it is perpetually abusing it. By despising the guidance of reason and good sense, it retards the progress of elegance and taste, while its votaries persecute those for singularity who possess them. It is most inimical to permanent utility and permanent enjoyment; compelling us to relinqu sh numerous advantages, when they are no longer in the mode. It entices persons of genius to direct their talents to some particular object; and when they have acquired skill, and address in their respective branches, and are rejoicing in the success of their labours, the fickleness of its nature leaves them in a state much more deplorable than that from which it had taken them. Nor can it provide support for a new class of the industrious, without involving those who lately administered to its caprices, in the depth of distress.'

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Dr. C.'s readers will be highly pleased with his exhortation against a censorious and intolerant temper: but we would particularly advise the young, and those who have youth in charge, to peruse with care the observations of the author under the heads of *Ignorance*, *the Influence of present Objects*, and *Inordinate Self-Love*.

In his second disquisition, the Doctor states that the offices of the intellectual faculties in the pursuit of well-being are,

'I To acquire competent knowledge.
'II. To retain, or recollect knowledge, for the application of it to suitable purposes.
'III. To imagine, or exert a creative faculty.
'IV. To will, or determine to act.
'V. To be conscious of our own state, and every part of our own operations.'

Though the tenor of this performance is studiously practical, the author occasionally displays his capacity for pursuing the nicest and most subtile inquiries connected with the difficult subjects under his consideration. We must ascribe great justice, if not novelty, to the remarks in the ensuing extract on the province of the imagination, and the nature and operations of Genius:

'If our preceding observations be admitted, they will indicate the precise office of the imagination It is not destined to act alone. Without direction, it is wild, extravagant, and pernicious. But it is destined to suggest an infinitude of ideas from which the calmer faculties may make a due selection, and which they may render applicable to the most important purposes. Without its creative powers, all human knowledge would be confined to a few perceptions alone, impressed upon the mind by the medium of the corporeal organs, and these perceptions could only arise from the most obvious and striking properties of bodies; the organs not receiving aid from instruments, in the formation of which the imagination is concerned, their perceptions would be few and inaccurate; and we should of consequence be detained upon a level with inferior beings; not an exertion could be made, beyond what relates to the lowest stage of simple existence. Thus it is the imagination which furnishes the most ample materials; but it is the office of reason and judgment to combine and shape them into something productive of good.

'This combination of the reasoning and discriminating powers, with the thoughts suggested by the imagination, constitutes Genius; whose characteristic it is to discover interesting truths or to form pleasing, or useful combinations; that is, to enlarge our sphere of knowledge by investigating or developing important facts, which could never have been known, without its exertions; to multiply the conveniences and accommodations of life by ingenious inventions; and to augment our enjoyment by various combinations of thought, which call

call forth pleasing and dignified emotions, or charm by the lively and interesting figures presented to the mind.

'These exertions of the human faculties are always considered as the most exalted, and the most wonderful. High respectability is attached to a proper use of the preceding faculties. A quick *perception*, accurate *discrimination*, just *judgment*, are valued as excellencies. Whoever duly exercises the mental powers, either in the acquisition of knowledge, or the application of it to proper purposes, is respected as a man of *Capacity*, of *Abilities*, as possessing *Talents*; that is, as cultivating and improving his mental treasures. But the superiority of men of genius, in the general estimation, is marked by the very epithet itself Genius was originally deemed *supernatural* The happy possessor was supposed to hold converse with a superior order of Beings; and it was thought that the *Genii* themselves immediately inspired him with his supereminent powers.

'The operations of genius are consequently three-fold. They are observable in every new discovery, or improvement in the sciences; in all the works of art; and in the agreeable fancies of the brain. But, in each department, the relative proportions between the imagination and the calmer faculties, are very different.

'In the pursuit of Science, *fancy* is the least apparent, but the reasoning and discriminating powers are most conspicuous. In consequence of a portion of knowledge, acquired by the exercise of the preceding faculties, some conception is formed in the mind, distinct from the knowledge obtained. This at first is a conjecture, an opinion, or a conjectural inference, which excites a disposition for farther investigation. An eagerness is produced to bring conjectures, opinions, and inferences, to the test, and to be assured of their truth, where truth appears highly important in itself, or introductory to more extensive knowledge. Truths being once ascertained, become to the philosophic mind the basis of other conjectures, other pursuits, other experiments and researches; until Humanity itself seems to soar above its nature, and to dwell among beings of a superior order. In occupations of this kind, Fancy, instead of being courted, is shunned and dreaded, as a seducer into the paths of error Every conjecture is suspected, until it has been scrutinized; and it is possible that the philosopher himself, though in the pursuit of what is just and true, may not be sufficiently grateful to that imagination which afforded essential aid to all his investigations. A Genius of this desrciption is usually honoured with the epithets of *deep, penetrating, and profound.*'

Dr. Cogan's metaphysical skill no where appears to more advantage than in his disquisition under the head of volition:

'*Volition*, or *to will*, as expressive of the exercise of *Volition*, in a philosophical sense, may be considered as comprehending the following particulars: It implies some leading principle of action;—Incitement or Inducement to perform a certain act;—a Desire or Inclination formed by this inducement;—Ability to act according to the desire or inclination inspired;—the Motive which proved influential in determining the mind;—the Determination itself,—and the final Act.

Without

Without every one of these, no act of philosophical Volition could take place.'

We are not acquainted with any analysis of this grand mental process, so full and satisfactory as that which is given by Dr. C. It soars more above practice than any other part of the volume; and it will engage the attention of speculative metaphysicians. We shall not undertake to appreciate the following distinction made by the author, but we deem it of sufficient importance to invite our more intelligent readers to a careful perusal of it: only remarking that he has neatly discriminated between *inducement* and *motive.*

'All Incitements and Inducements are not equally efficient. Some are simply operative in giving a certain bent and inclination to the mind; while others lead to the determination which produces the act itself. They both agree in exciting dispositions and propensities; but those of the latter class are predominant, and produce the very act which we term an act of Volition.

'We shall venture to distinguish the latter class, by the appellation of *Motives,* because, if the above statement be admitted, it clearly points out a philosophical distinction between a *Motive* and an *Incitement* or an *Inducement.* It shews that there is a place for each, and marks the boundaries of each. A mere *Incitement,* or *Inducement,* simply disposes the mind to act by raising desires; that which is become a *Motive* finally determines the mind, which in this connection is called the *Will,* to act in a particular manner, without which the action would not have been performed. The distinctions themselves exist. This cannot be controverted; and the terms selected to express each, both from their etymology and general signification, are best adapted to characterize them, by pointing out subsisting differences. The one, *Inducement,* best expresses that which acts upon the mind, producing the *Inclination;* the other, *Motive,* best expresses that incitement or inducement which by gaining the ascendency, finally had the power of determining the will. Thus, philosophically speaking, there cannot be two *opposite Motives,* the one impelling the mind to act, and the other restraining it from acting. There may be various reasons, considerations, and inducements, which by their contrarieties, will hold the mind in suspense, and prevent the determination; but that which has finally triumphed, and produced the decision of the will, has been the *Motive.* Where many considerations have united to influence the particular decision, the union of their powers will have induced the mind to yield to this influence, with greater promptitude; and thus we may be induced by *several motives* to perform the same action; but we cannot be influenced by contrary *Motives* to act, and not to act at the same instant. If no opposition should occur to the desires or inclinations which exciting causes have implanted, the pleasure to be enjoyed by satisfying the desire, will prove a *Motive;* and in such cases the inclination and the motive are one. But if considerations or inducements of a stronger nature, suppress the first impulse, and determine

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the will, these become *the Motives*, and the others remain under the description of *Incitements* or *Inducements*. Under an inducement the resolution is forming, the mind is powerfully led towards the object; but still it is not decisive like a *Motive*. In every *Motive* we have been induced, by certain considerations; but we may have had strong inducements to act in one manner, which have been over-ruled by stronger inducements, which form the Motives to act in a different manner.

'It is usual in philosophical disputes concerning the freedom of the will, to assert that the *strongest motives will prevail*. If the above distinctions be admitted, the assertion will appear to be inaccurate or superfluous. That which determines the will *becomes the Motive* by being the strongest inducement, and the efficient cause. So that, the motive does not prevail because it is the *strongest*, considered in competition with other *Motives*; but it manifests its strength by its *prevalence*; that is by its *becoming the Motive*.

'We might illustrate and confirm these ideas, by adducing numberless modes of speech in familiar discourse, which perfectly correspond with them. But an instance or two shall suffice. Were any one to assert that "he had very strong *motives* for residing in the country, in preference to town," we should naturally suppose that he was already resident in the country, or that the resolution was taken. But this inference is not so immediately attached to the declaration that "he was strongly *induced* to reside in the country;" for we might still suppose that he was prevented by important motives. From this example, it is evident, that we feel an impropriety in calling that a *motive* which was uninfluential, or was not productive of the correspondent act. When an act is performed, we may with equal propriety ask what was the *motive* or *inducement*? because they both operated in the same directions; and the inducement, unopposed, became the *Motive*; but we never inquire what was the *Motive* of an inefficient propensity, which was over-ruled by other considerations. Nor do we apply the word Motive to any train of thoughts which have not been productive of action. It is more pertinent to say, what were your *Reasons* or *Inducements* for indulging such strange thoughts, than, what could be your *Motives*. But if these strange thoughts lead to strange actions, the inquiry into the *Motive* of action would be conformable both to strict propriety, and common usage.'

Ably as the author elucidates the topic of volition, his readers will not find it an easy matter to ascertain to which of the parties he belongs who are at variance on the topic of free-will. Expressions favourable to each are used by him: but, from omissions rather than from assertions, we are inclined to place him in the class of those who are termed necessitarians.

Early in his third disquisition, Dr. C. observes that,

'It is very extraordinary that, although the *possession* of Good be the incessant desire of every individual, mankind in general take so little

little pains to form adequate notions of this good; to examine minutely in what it consists, and by what specific means it can be obtained. They appear to give themselves up entirely to the chance of receiving different impressions from surrounding objects, as they pass through life; or they permit the strong and vigorous influence of present objects, to be their sole guides; and it is with difficulty they are convinced by experience itself, that the dissatisfactions and vexations they suffer, proceed from the seductions of these guides. They eagerly pursue the more immediate, or most agreeable sensations arising from the gratification of their appetites, and the indulgence of the prevalent passion, without calculating the sum of good or evil which will be the probable result.

'It is surely of the first importance, that we entertain just ideas of that for which we are all anxious; that we ascertain in what Well-being consists; the degrees of felicity human nature is rendered capable of possessing; and the sources from whence alone they are derived, preparatory to our pursuit of the means we consider as adapted to the end.'

To assist in such an inquiry is the object of this part of the work; and the plan which the author pursues for that purpose is thus introduced:

'To be the better enabled to form a genuine estimate of that which all men pursue, it will be proper to collect together some of the leading characteristics of Well-being, state its various degrees, examine the specific nature and qualities of the means pursued in order to obtain the end; and trace their peculiar adaptation to the nature and constitution of Man. In our Analytical View of the Passions, some of these subjects have been occasionally noticed; but as our observations were cursorily made in various connections, and for various purposes, it will be necessary to treat them in a more connected and ample manner, and enter minutely into various particulars, which have not as yet demanded our attention.

'In the pursuit of this object, we shall, in the present Disquisition, observe the following order:

'First, we shall make some observations on the nature of Well-being, and the degrees of Well-being attainable by Man.

'In the next place, examine the various sources of Well-being, and investigate the specific character of each.

'The above inquiries will be introductory to some observations respecting the progressive nature of Well-being; and also

'To an examination of the nature, and causes of human misery.'

The notions which Dr. C. entertains on this subject are more in unison with the doctrines of the Stoics, than with those which were professed by the most refined followers of Epicurus. His idea of individual happiness seems not only more friendly to the interests of society, but more accordant with the unsophisticated feelings of the well-trained mind, than the representations of the disciples of the latter school.

In conclusion, we must observe that the philosophy of Dr. Cogan is of the most respectable and beneficent species: it prefers practice to speculation; if it be observant of the caution and reserve that are inseparable from its nature, it is not fond of throwing difficulties in the way of the best hopes and consolations of mankind; nor does it contemn the office of zealously vindicating that benign providence under which we live, and asserting the existence and attributes of its divine source. While, however, we applaud the zeal which leads Dr. C. so severely to censure the sage of Ferney, we must add that, for the moment, he kept not in his eye the author of Merope and Mahomet, and the intrepid foe of religious persecution, whose genius disarmed intolerance. The anecdotes here related of Voltaire, if true, would prove little; and it is not to be disputed that there have been unbelievers who have died with composure, while gloom has pervaded the last moments of some of the best of christians. The respective systems, we conceive, are little affected by such events, which prove only the diversity of strength in the mind of man.

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ART. XI. *Archæologia:* or Miscellaneous Tracts, published by the Society of Antiquaries. Vol. XV.

[*Art. concluded from p.* 287.]

IT has been shewn by Dr. Middleton in his celebrated "Letters from Rome," that the Popish Ceremonies observed by the modern Italians originate in those of their Pagan ancestors. The priests of the new religion artfully endeavoured to accommodate themselves to the prejudices of those who were attached, by habit, to the antient superstitions of their country; and we cannot be much surprized at this circumstance, when we perceive how tenacious all people are of antient customs and festivals; especially if any religious idea be connected with them.—The *Feast of Fools*, which is the subject of a paper in this volume by Francis Douce, Esq. affords an instance in addition to those which have been mentioned by Middleton and others. This degrading institution appears to have supplied the place of the Roman *Saturnalia* celebrated at the close of the year, or in the month of December. It is said soon to have made its way into England; and we are told that, about the year 1240, in the reign of Henry III., Grosthead, then bishop of Lincoln, reprehended it with just severity: but the observation of it continued in different parts of this country for many years, and possibly some traces of it are yet to be found. Mr. Douce's

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Douce's dissertation is accompanied by engravings of a necklace, consisting of thirty five pieces of wood, so contrived as to let into each other, by which means it assumes a circular form: on these, it are added, are carved a variety of ludicrous and grotesque figures, consisting of fools, tumblers, huntsmen, and animals*; with others that, from their licentiousness, do not admit of a particular description, but which may refer to the *feast of fools*.

It proves sometimes a very useful employment to correct the mistakes of historical writers: but much attention, diligence, and accuracy are requisite for the purpose; and these are manifested by F. Damiani, in his *Memoir on the Vicissitudes of the Principality of Antioch, during the Crusades*.—To several readers, the disquistion will be interesting and acceptable, though it can receive from us only this short notice.

Dr. Vincent, Dean of Westminster, communicates *Extracts from an ancient MS. concerning the Manor of Paddington, Middlesex*, which has been found among the Westminster archives, and serves to display the false notions of christianity, and of religion in general, that prevailed at the time. Walter, abbot of Westminster, is said to have died in the year 1191; the manor of Paddington was assigned for the celebration of his anniversary; and we are here made acquainted with the form ordered for the purpose. The grant, which originated in folly, now affords amusement: but much waste and extravagance are here discovered for very little benefit, and, we may reasonably conclude, to pernicious effect.—'The great tankard of twenty five quarts' may perhaps create a smile†.—A translation of the original Latin accompanies this article, for the assistance of general readers.

Silver, gold, and precious stones, present themselves abundantly in *An Inventory and Appraisement of the Plate of the Lower Jewel-house of the Tower, Anno* 1649. This paper was produced by the late Rev. John Brand, Secretary, from the original MS. in his possession. To those which belonged to the *lower*, we find here added a like account of the *upper* house of the Tower of the same date, together also with an 'Inventory of that Part of the Regalia, which were then removed from Westminster to the Tower Jewel-house.' The amount of the whole is 14,221l. 15s. 4d. Among other curiosities, 'the unicorne's hornes, valued at 600l.' seem to excite particular attention. 'King Alfred's crowne, of gould wyer-

* Bearing a striking similitude to the sculptures on the seats of stalls in cathedrals and monastic buildings.

† *In magno tankardo* XXV. *lagenarum cervisia.*

worke, set with slight stones and two little bells, and valued at 248l: 10s.,' if it really belonged to him, was a curiosity which could not fail of attracting notice in this country. That great man considered the welfare and comfort of the people under his care as his happiness and treasure. The catalogues here exhibited will entertain a great number of readers.

It is not easy for us to give a clear and circumstantial relation of *Observations on the Monument in Canterbury Cathedral, called the Tomb of Theobald, with an Account of two ancient Inscriptions in Lead, discovered in that Cathedral;* by Henry Boys, Esq. This Theobald was the archbishop immediately preceding the famous Becket. Of the two leaden inscriptions, well executed prints are here furnished. One of them relates to the above Theobald.

The Discovery and Interment of the Heart of Arthur, Lord Capel, is communicated by the Rev. Anthony Hamilton, Hadham, Herts. Dr. Stanly, dean of St. Asaph, possessed the benefice of Hadham from the year 1690 to 1722, and was much in the confidence of the Essex family; and the charter-room, as it was styled, at Hadham-hall, was in a particular manner intrusted to his inspection. Here he discovered a silver cup and cover, with a written declaration that it contained the *heart* above-mentioned, said to be preserved in order that, on the restoration of the family, it might be interred with the body of Charles the first. Under the direction of the descendants, however, the silver cup was sold, the money was given to the poor, and the *heart* was lodged in an iron box and deposited in the Vault at the church of Little Hadham. This transaction seems to have taken place somewhere about the year 1703; and the Society have judged it proper that the short and rather imperfect Memoir of Mr. H. should be inserted in the present volume.

A very brief relation follows the above, of *An engraved Brass Plate from Netley Abbey,* by John Latham, M.D.—This brass plate measures about nineteen inches square, weighs ten pounds, and was found in a poor man's house, where it served for the back of a grate. The Doctor seems to have no doubt of its having been brought from the above named spot: it is now clear and bright: but it may perplex antiquaries in this line to develope the family to which it belonged, or what is intended by its numerous devices. The labels proceeding from the mouths of the man and the woman may possibly allude to Ps. 27, verses 4 and 8.

Good sense, observation, and learning of a particular kind are manifested in *Conjectures respecting the ancient Sculptures and Inscriptions on two Pillars in the Abbey Church of Rumsey,* by

William Latham, Esq. The subject has undergone some attentive discussions in the last of these volumes, which are noticed with respect and deference, and the additional remarks here offered are ingenious. In the conclusion of the essay, the propriety of spelling the name of this town, Romsey, is called in question, since the writers of antiquity all agree in terming it Rumsey.

The Dormitory of the Cathedral-monastery of Norwich receives some notices from F. Sayers, M.D. In the year 1744 this building was converted into a work-house, and in 1804 it was demolished: the roof is said to have been very beautiful.

Remarks on the Fortresses of ancient Greece are presented by William Hamilton, Esq. junior. This gentleman has visited the country, and may therefore be supposed qualified to write and describe with accuracy. His observations chiefly relate to the most remote periods, and to walls which are reported to have been raised by the Cyclops.

'Their massiveness, their solidity, and their extent, the many ages through which they have resisted the destructive influence of time and the seasons, are so many assisting circumstances to ensure them the admiration and wonder of all who visit them, without the carelessness of ignorance. In a geographical point of view, they have a peculiar interest, as they serve to mark out, indisputably, the sites of many ancient towns, of which we should in vain have sought for any other type. In the greater part of these, every other relic of human habitation, every other specimen of the handy work of man, is annihilated; huge unformed rocks seem to have usurped the places of dwelling-houses, and for miles around, all is shapeless, and in its brute form, except these walls, and the massive blocks of which they consist.'

This attentive traveller proceeds to illustrate his subject in different instances. We are also informed that monuments of this kind, and of similar antiquity, occur in Asia Minor, particularly among the Ionian and Æolic colonies. These walls, composed of irregular masses of rock, some of which measure six feet every way, are 25 feet thick, of solid masonry.

'Arches,' Mr. H. says, 'were unknown to the Greeks; the doorways and windows are surmounted by single architraves.' He reports, moreover, in a note, that 'the only specimen of an arch which he had seen in the Grecian buildings was a doorway of a small detached fort on a rock above Ephesus, where it seems to have been hewn out of the solid wall, in the form of a gothic arch.' It is probable that this perforation was not executed by the Greeks.

Mr. H. concludes his paper with the mention of two very important objects to the antiquary and the historian, viz. the

Phocian

Phocian wall, which extended from the pass of Thermopylæ to the gulph of Crissa, and some traces of which are still to be found; and the *Lacedæmonian wall*, built across the isthmus of Corinth, which is still very entire, in its whole extent of six miles.

We are now led back to the topic which had been, as already related, slightly considered by Dr. Sayers, and on which two additional articles make their appearance, under the following titles:—'*Observations on the Remains of the Dormitory and Refectory which stood on the southern Side of the Cloisters of the Cathedral Church of Norwich, by the Rev.* W. Gibson, *A. M.*' and '*Description of the ancient Building at Norwich, which is the Subject of the preceding Paper, by* John Adey Repton, *Esq.*'—The last of these papers is attended by three plates, affording the reader a plan or ground-plot of the building before it was destroyed. The shaft, with the capitals and bases of pillars, apparently much recommend the workmanship of the period in which it was performed *; 'the shafts of the columns are plain: the capitals, highly enriched and ornamented by painting and gilding, and the arches are painted only.'

Barrows, which have so often employed the pages of this work, still continue objects of scrutiny. We are here required to mention, *Farther Account of Tumuli opened in Wiltshire; in a Letter from Mr.* William Cunnington.—In one of the four here enumerated, was discovered, besides human skeletons and bones of animals, &c. a large handsome cup, holding two quarts, with a smaller one near it; and in another, a two edged sword, an iron spear and buckle of the same metal, the umbo of a shield, a piece of leather, a strip of brass, a knife, &c. Mr. Cunnington regards all these barrows as the *tumuli* of Britons.

Copies of Writs preserved among his Majesty's Records in the Tower, from King Edward the First, to the Chief Justice of Chester, and the Bishop of Carlisle on Occasion of the Marriage of the King's eldest Daughter. Communicated by Samuel Lysons, Esq.—Many of these Latin writs, directed to different persons and places, were lodged together with the two which are here specified. This king's eldest daughter, named Eleanor, had been before espoused by proxy to Alphonso III. king of Arragon, who died, A. D. 1291, before the solemnization of the marriage. 'In what is styled the *liberate roll* of the year, 1294,' we are told, 'there is an order from the king dated at Winterbourne the 1st October, for the payment to the Earl of Barr of his daughter Eleanor's marriage portion of ten thousand marks, on his giving a receipt for it by his letters patent.' From the

* Somewhere about the year 1100.

same gentleman, we receive *Extracts from the Rotulus Familiæ in the eighteenth Year of K. Edward I., preserved among his Majesty's Records in the Tower, with a Translation and Notes by Mr.* Brand. The expences of the King's *family*, according to this account, seem to have been, on an average, about twenty pounds per month; and we are told that its present value may be estimated at about five hundred and fifty pounds of our money. '*The family* must here be understood exclusively of the king and queen, who appear to have been resident elsewhere during the time included in this Roll; it probably consisted of at least six princes and princesses.'

It is with some persons a subject of complaint that Antiquaries have not, with sufficient clearness and certainty, determined what is meant by *Gothic* architecture: which leads them to think of the rude people who in distant times issued forth, spreading terror and devastation. The term continues to be used, whatever may be its purport; and we have here an *Account of some Remains of Gothic Architecture in Italy and Sicily, by* Robert Smirke, Esq. junior, inserted in a letter to Mr. Lysons. It is properly remarked that, in Germany, examples of this kind are numerous and splendid; there are many also in Italy, but they are generally in a more mixed and unformed character of design. Four specimens are here presented to our notice: one is a window in the cathedral church of Messina, in Sicily, which has fortunately been spared by the earthquakes; another is part of the baptistery of Pisa, built from the designs of Diotisalvi in the year 1152; a third represents the west side of the interior of the Campo Santo, or cemetery of Pisa; and a fourth drawing illustrates some parts of the preceding. The engravings for this article deserve praise.

Observations on the foregoing Paper respecting the remains of Gothic Architecture in Italy, by Sir H. C. Englefield, Bart., immediately follow, containing judicious strictures on Mr. S.'s communication. Sir Harry thinks that the Gothic specimens, adduced by Mr. Smirke, are additions of a date posterior to the original edifices; and he gives several reasons in support of his opinion. Mr. Smirke, however, in a subsequent paper intitled '*Farther Remarks*,' while he feels himself honoured by the learned Baronet's remarks, states the grounds on which he is led to believe that the edifices, which he has noticed as containing features of Gothic architecture, have not undergone those changes in decoration which Sir Harry supposes; and he strengthens his hypothesis by other specimens, especially of the upper part of the West front of the Cathedral of Pisa, and of the Tower of the church of Li Frari at Venice: the whole of which tower must evidently have been executed at the same time, viz. in the year 1234.

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We now arrive at the 39th and last of the articles in this volume, containing *Remarks on the Seal of the Bailiffs of the Liberty of Bridgenorth, by* Francis Townsend, *Esq. Windsor Herald.* All that we deem it requisite to specify from this paper is a short paragraph from an entry said to have been made by the Heralds at their visitation of the county of Salop, in 1623; "the towne of *Bruges*, in the Countie of Salop, aunciently so called, but of later times corruptly nominated Brugenorth or Brugge-north, when indeed that attribute of *North* ought to be *Morse*, as standing on the side of the Forest of Morse in the said Countie." This alteration of the name, however, Mr. Townsend seems to dispute.

The *Appendix*, exclusive of an enumeration of presents to the Society, &c., contains between 20 and 30 pages; and out of the number of prints, twenty-one may be said to relate to subjects of importance. Indeed, most, if not all of them, are worthy of attention, though some more than others, viz. inscriptions, urns, Roman pottery, an antient sword, with an antient mould for casting spear-heads, seals, stone-instruments, and a variety of other particulars.—Nine fragments of Roman utensils in silver, enriched with sculpture, found in Northumberland, are exhibited by Sir H. C. Englefield, and are pronounced to have been the handles of dishes of different kinds, some about the time of Septimius Severus, and others of Domitian.

Two original writs of privy seal shew the mode adopted by Charles I. in the beginning of his reign, to obtain money from his subjects, under pretence of a loan, and the imitation of it by the Republican party. 'There is this difference,' remarks Wm. Bray, Esq. 'in the wording of the writ, that the king *requires*, the Parliament *desires*.'

Craven Ord, Esq. laid before the Society three curious old paintings from Olivers, the seat of the Eldred family, in the county of Essex. One of them represents a terrestrial globe, marked with the equinoctial line, tropics of Capricorn and Cancer, America, &c. with the following inscription: "Thomas Eldred went out of Plimmouthe 1586 July 21, and sailed about the whole globe, and arrived againe in Plimmouthe the 9 of September 1588. What can seeme great to him that hath seene the whole world and the wondrous works therein, save the Maker of *it*, and the world above it." This Thomas Eldred sailed round the world, (in what capacity it does not appear,) with the famous navigator, "Master Candish, of Trimley in the Countie of Suffolk, Esq." whose voyage is given in Hackluyt's collection, vol. 3d. p. 803.—"We departed out of Plimmouth, (it is farther said,) on Thursday the 21st of July 1586, with three sayles, to wit, the Desire, a Ship of 120

Tunnes; the Content of 60 Tunnes; and the Hugh Gallant, a Bark of 40 Tunnes, in which small Fleete were 123 persons of all sortes, with all kinde of Furniture and Victuals sufficient for the space of two yeares." At the end of the memorial, it is added; "The 9th of September, 1588, after a terrible tempest, which carried away most part of our sailes, by the merciful favour of the Almightie, we recovered our longwished port of Plimouth in England, from whence we set foorth at the beginning of our voyage." — A fine engraving is here given of *one of the Eldred family*, from an original painting supposed to represent this Thomas Eldred; though others consider it as intended for John Eldred, *another great traveller of this family*, of whose voyage to Tripolis, in Syria, by sea, and thence by land and river to Babylon, an account is also given by Hackluyt *. Of this last navigator, we are farther told, from an inscription under a stone bust, in Great Saxham church,—"New Buckingham in Norfolke was his first Being: in Babilon hee spent some parte of his time, and the rest of his earthly pilgrimage hee spent in London, and was Alderman of that famous cittee." His age was 80.— From one of the fingers in the above portrait is suspended a circular dial, 'commonly called equinoctial or universal.'

A strange, but polished and well wrought stone, found fourteen feet beneath the surface in the island of Dominica, affords room for much inquiry, though to little purpose. Doctor James Clarke might well say, 'I am at a loss to form any probable conjecture respecting the emblem or figure of this stone, or for what purpose it had been cut out, unless it was intended to represent some heathen deity, or object of worship.' This is no improbable supposition; and he concludes that, finely polished as it is, it was the workmanship of the Charaibes, or Aborigines of that island.

A brief account is given, by the Dean of Raphoe, of some caves discovered in the parish of Kilslevy, county of Armagh, Ireland, attended by four plates; the last of which affords a distinct view of the whole. They seem to have formed an antient temple.

The volume finishes by the description of an antient silver fork, furnished by the Rev. John Brand; its date is 1610, before which time the use of this convenient and cleanly article was not general in England. Ivory sticks seem by some people to have been employed for the purpose.' We recollect that Sir John Chardin mentions the difficulty which he found, when in Mingrelia, in managing these imperfect instruments, which the natives handled with great readiness.

* Vol. II. p. 268.

Different

Different readers, who are disposed to inquire, to examine, and to attend, will doubtless derive considerable information and entertainment from the addition which this Society has here made to its publications. A few inaccuracies of language might be pointed out, but they do not require particular notice. The plates, which cannot fail of imparting amusement and pleasure, amount in number to forty-six.

Hi.

ART. XII. *The Oriental Voyager*; or descriptive Sketches and cursory Remarks, on a Voyage to India and China in his Majesty's Ship Caroline, performed in the Years 1803-4-5-6. Interspersed with Extracts from the best modern Voyages and Travels. The Whole intended to exhibit a topographical and picturesque Sketch of all the principal Places, which are annually or occasionally visited by our East India and China Fleets. The Routes to and from India illustrated by the Tracks of his Majesty's Ships *Caroline* and *Medusa*, correctly set off on a Chart extending from the British Isles to Canton. By J. Johnson, Esq; Surgeon in the Royal Navy. 8vo. pp. 388. 10s. 6d. Boards. Asperne. 1807.

THIS performance is composed partly of original Sketches and remarks by the author himself, and partly of extracts from the works of other voyagers. Mr. Johnson's sole object in publishing it is 'to furnish the young voyager with an agreeable and useful companion on his first visits to the oriental world,' and not either to amuse or to instruct the critic or the man of learning. In selecting such passages from the most reputable voyages and travels, as are descriptive of those places which he had not himself an opportunity of visiting, he has not attempted to introduce them as his own, but has distinguished them as quotations and has affixed to each its authority.

Mr. J. leads his reader a round of more than forty thousand miles; and though he is aware that many of his descriptions, in his voyage to India and China, have been anticipated by other writers, he wishes it to be remembered that their accounts are scattered through various expensive works, were written a number of years ago, and are surrounded by a great variety of matter which cannot be either instructive or interesting to a cursory visitor of the East. The circumstances, however, which give him a just claim to approbation, and must insure to his volume a favourable reception, particularly from persons of the naval profession, are more especially these. In order to impress on the minds of the younger classes of this description of people, a just sense of the advantages of regularity, temperance, and morality in

hot and tropical climates, he has introduced faithful pictures, drawn from life, and from death also, of the consequences of indulgence in an opposite system; and he has added various observations on the local diseases of such climates, and the means of preserving health in them. He has also prefixed a chart, exhibiting very distinctly the tracts of His Majesty's frigates Caroline, outward bound to India, and the Medusa, on her voyage home *.

When speaking of the mortality that prevailed in November 1803 on board of our Indiamen lying in the river Hoogly, Mr. J. makes the following just observations:

'While waiting for the tide at Culpee, and Diamond Harbour, both situated on the eastern bank of the Hoogly, we visited several of the Indiamen lying there, where a great mortality prevailed among the European seamen. This is the case almost every year, especially in the months of July and August, at and after the great periodical rains, that fall in Bengal about this time; when many a hardy tar, after weathering various toils and dangers, is here cut off in a few days, nay, hours, by a violent fever, which is endemic at these periods. The rivers, swelled by this annual deluge, sweep down great quantities of dead animal and vegetable substances, which, at the fall of the tide, lie on their low muddy banks, exposed to the meridian sun, whose beams draw up their putrid exhalations in the course of the day; and these being wafted on board the ships by the light land breeze, produce, in conjunction with the intense heat of the climate, the most dangerous fevers. They generally begin with delirium, high fever, great thirst, heat and anxiety, with often a bilious vomiting, which is a very troublesome and dangerous symptom. This fever frequently kills in the course of the third day, unless the patient's mouth can be affected by mercury before that time. This wonderful medicine is considered here as the sheet anchor in this and many other diseases: and therefore they throw it into the system as fast as possible, after the disorder appears, both internally and by frictions, until a ptyalism comes on, when they pronounce them out of danger. Numbers, however, both officers and men, were daily falling sacrifices to this baleful and unhealthy spot. It is found that *the farther down the river, the less sickness prevails*; and that consequently Saugur road is the healthiest anchorage in the Hoogly. Here it is that the good effects of temperance will become eminently conspicuous.

'I well know how frequently youngsters are led astray by those insidious tales related by veterans of the bottle; who represent to them that the surest method of escaping sickness in unhealthy situations, is, (using one of their own expressions,) to carry on the war! But, alas! how many of them find, when it is too late, that they have only been waging war against their own constitutions; and, in fact,

* This is the voyage which we mentioned in our last Number p. 239. as being so remarkably rapid, and it was from p. 387. of this volume that we then stated the circumstances of it.

placing

placing a destructive weapon in the hands of their enemy, the climate, which will sooner or later cut their own thread of existence!

'And here, too, let me most strenuously caution the young voyager, to beware of those *votaries of Venus*, who are so numerous in every town and village on the banks of this river, as well as on all the shores of India, and I may add England. The siren's song was not more fatal to the deluded Sicilian mariner of old, than is the *contaminated embrace* of a modern Cytherean, to the young European, embarking on a long voyage.

'A gentleman of the author's acquaintance lost his life in this very place, in consequence of an *act* committed in an *unguarded moment*. He had exchanged into a ship that was returning to England, and while she lay at this anchorage, he had "stepped aside from the paths of virtue;" the consequence of which was, that in the anxiety to get clear of his complaint before the ship sailed, the medicines operated so powerfully on a weak constitution, that he fell into a fever, and died; leaving, let me painfully add, a wife and orphan in England, to bewail his loss.—The author would not have related this fact, but in hopes that such a fatal *example* may have a greater effect than any *precept*, in deterring young men from running the chance of ruining their own constitution for a momentary sensual gratification.'

The subsequent remarks may prove very useful to navigators:

'During our stay in the Ganges, and on our cruise to Rangoon, we experienced considerable sickness on board the ship; especially in the month of October, when there were often so many as fifty or sixty men in the sick list at a time, chiefly with dysenteries, intermitting and remitting fevers. Still, though fresh from Europe, we did not lose men in proportion to the Indiamen; the difference of situation, and the hard labour which the men are obliged to perform on board the latter description of ships, can only account for this circumstance. We here witnessed the astonishing effects of mercury, which is a cure for almost every disease in this climate; for no sooner does it begin to salivate, than there is a remission of all the symptoms in dysenteries, fevers, &c. which many of us experienced with no small degree of satisfaction, very few of us having escaped an attack from one or other of these complaints.

'It appears that Kedgeree is a healthier situation than Diamond harbour, and therefore men of war should always bring up at that place, having no particular business with one part of the river more than another. His Majesty's ships Howe and Medusa, by lying at Diamond harbour afterwards, suffered more than *eight times the loss* which we sustained at Kedgeree. This may be owing to the proximity of the anchorage at Diamond harbour, to the low swampy shores about that place, where a number of rivulets open into the stream of the Hoogly, and bring down from the country great quantities of putrid substances, that lie along the banks at low water, emitting the most offensive vapours. At Kedgeree and Saugur roads, therefore, men of war have not only the advantage of lying at a greater distance

distance from the shore, but the mouth of the river being here from eight to fourteen miles in breadth, there is consequently a much greater circulation of air; while stores and other necessaries are brought down in the country craft, equally as well as if the ship lay at Diamond harbour. In short, nothing but bad weather, or the necessity of having the ship docked, should induce a man of war to go higher up than Kedgeree; the inconvenience to the officers, arising from the great distance between the ship and Calcutta, being of very small consideration, compared with the health of the ship's company. I was informed that those ships which lay directly abreast of any of the creeks, were always more sickly than the others: this is a hint worth attending to, when bringing the ship to her moorings. The water too with which ships of war, &c. are supplied at Bengal, is generally taken up from the Ganges, some way above Calcutta, and is consequently full of slime and other feculence, that frequently occasion fluxes and bowel complaints among the people, unless it be suffered to stand for some time, and then the clear part gently pumped off from the turbid, into fresh casks: this will not only render it a pleasant beverage, but obviate a great deal of sickness and discontent among the ship's company.'

Mr. Johnson states that the principal diseases among our seamen in China, in October 1804, were intermittent fevers, fluxes, and some liver-complaints; and that in the ship to which he belonged, from sixty to eighty men at a time were often unable to do duty, though no particular cause could be assigned for their being so unhealthy, except the sudden transition from an Indian climate to that of China. He says that, on board the Grampus and Caroline, when the Bark was all expended on the numerous agues and different kinds of intermittents, the surgeons had recourse to Calomel, which repelled the diseases: but that those persons, who were thus relieved, were almost invariably attacked again when the influence of the Mercury had subsided; whereas such a recurrence seldom happened to those who were cured by Bark. His observation also led him to conclude that, in India and in China, the higher a ship proceeds up a river the more likely she is to become sickly.—The liver-complaint, he says, is much more frequent in the East Indies than in any other tropical climate; and he offers copious remarks on this dangerous disease, on the principal causes of it, and on the mode of treatment calculated for conquering it when it is attacked in due season: but they are too extensive for our insertion.

Much useful information and many judicious hints may be collected from this volume; as well as a considerable share of picturesque description, intermixed with poetical quotations and some original compositions, which prove that the author can occasionally relax from professional studies. The verses at p. 232 have considerable poetic merit, as well as good moral tendency.

Glen. ART.

ART. XIII. *Curialia:* or, An Historical Account of some Branches of the Royal Household, &c. &c. Parts IV. and V. In Two Letters addressed to the President of the Society of Antiquaries, from Samuel Pegge, Esq., F.S.A. 4to. pp. 104. 14s. sewed. Nichols and Son.

WE must ask leave to send our readers a considerable way back, in regard to the former parts of this work. If they will attend to the references given below*, they may obtain sufficient information concerning the nature of this production, together with the motives and design of its respectable author. He is now no more: but Mr. Nichols assures us that 'the publication of these collections is strictly conformable to the testamentary wishes of their author, who consigned them for that express purpose to him their present editor.'

The first of the letters before us presents the history of Somerset House, (Strand, London,) from its erection in 1549; and Mr. Pegge has manifested great industry and accurate inquiry, in preparing this tract for public view. One part of his design is to remove, or at least to extenuate, those heavy charges of sacrilege, oppression, and injustice, with which the character and memory of the Duke of Somerset have been loaded. It is well known that he was uncle to Edward VI.; and in addition to other high titles and dignities to which he had been advanced by Henry VIII., he was, during his nephew's minority, appointed governor of his person and protector of his realm. He was naturally ambitious; and amid such and other incentives, he might be seduced into very rash and unjustifiable measures. He was also a Protestant; and the abettors of Popery have not failed, as far as they could, to expose him to hatred and infamy. From considerations of this and of a similar kind, Mr. Pegge candidly infers that we should make some abatement of the censure which the Duke has undergone, both as to his general conduct, and as to the demolition of numerous buildings for the erection of that stately edifice which is the subject of present discussion. He conjectures that the Duke might have been already himself in possession of an inferior habitation on the spot; and he enumerates six principal structures, which, among others, were demolished to make way for the superb fabric that his Grace wished to raise, and did raise, but did not entirely finish, and surely could never enjoy.

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* See M. Review for July, 1783, Vol. 69. page 16.; and for July, 1785, Vol. 73. page 31.

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He is truly presented to us as an instance of the vanity of headstrong and aspiring ambition, and of worldly grandeur! Yet, however criminal he might be, some of his adversaries were much worse: though the policy of courts and statesmen often confounds and overwhelms all just distinctions.

Mr. Pegge proceeds to a description of the dilapidations above mentioned, and of several others more directly of the religious kind; and this is no unentertaining part of the work. As an instance of the pleasantry which here sometimes occurs, we may notice the little anecdote related when speaking of the Episcopal house of the bishop of *Landaff*, once situated here. He very naturally remarks that this See, which had been among the most opulent, was at the reformation pillaged in a singular manner; and he concludes by adding,—'well, therefore, might Bishop Babington, who was consecrated A. D. 1591, jocularly say, he was only bishop of *Aff*, for that the *Land* had been severed from it *.'

The demolition of the chapel in what was called Pardon-church yard, situated not very distant from the cathedral of St. Paul, is particularly noticed, because 'the secrets of the grave were laid open:' for on the removal of bodies there interred, which are said to have been those of the greatest criminals, 'it appeared that written pardons, drawn up in form by ecclesiastical scriveners and notaries, were actually buried with those who paid competently for them.—Hence, (adds this writer) I am afraid, when Pope Leo X., exultingly, though perhaps unguardedly, consoled himself with the wealth which † *The legendary Tale of Jesus Christ*, as he termed it, had brought to the castle of St. Angelo, that he spoke the sentiments of every occupier of the Papal chair.'

"*Tantum Religio potuit suadere malorum.*"

After the death of the Duke, his noble mansion was vested in the Crown; and it was regarded as the town-residence of Elizabeth, during the life of Queen Mary, though rarely indeed did that Princess make her appearance there. When she herself came to the throne, it was assigned to the Earl of Hertford, son of the late Duke by a second marriage: but it was sufficiently large to have apartments still appropriated to noble strangers and royal visitors. In the succeeding reign, it was a palace for the Queen, who for a length of time entertained

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* Harrington's *Nugæ Antiquæ*, London, 1770, vol. I. 12mo. pp. 150, and 192.

† His expression was, "*Quantas nobis divitias comparavit illa fabula Christi.*" See Rycaut.

there

there Christian IV., her brother, king of Denmark, from which circumstance it received sometimes the appellation of Denmark-house; and from this reign 'it became a jointure house, as soon as occasion rendered it necessary,' for the Queens of England. The author pursues his subject with a description of the structure, &c. &c. in a manner by no means uninteresting or unpleasant; and he continues to urge 'what may be adduced in favour of the Duke,' from all which we incline to believe that the charge against him will 'admit of much diminution,' not merely 'as to demolitions,' but also respecting his general conduct. Mr. P. likewise gives a long inventory of goods, furniture, plate, jewels, paintings, statues, &c. together with seven plates of this palace in its more antient and in modern times. It was finally demolished during the present reign.

Letter II. in this volume is 'A dissertation on the ancient establishment and function of the Serjeant at Arms.' 'Can any persons (says the writer,) with the same professional name suggest four more distinct and incongruous ideas than—A Serjeant at law.—A Serjeant at arms—A Serjeant trumpeter,—and a regimental Serjeant?'—Etymology has its use, though sometimes it is too justly ridiculed and rejected. Perhaps Mr. Pegge is right when he derives the term from *Serviens*, (serving,) the French having transmuted the letter *v* into a *g* or *j*, and thus it applies to any kind of Service. The letter is ingenious and learned.

Several additions are here made to former numbers of the *Curialia*. Hi.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1808.

EDUCATION.

Art. 14. *Moral Maxims*, from the Wisdom of Jesus the Son of Sirach, or Ecclesiasticus. Selected by a Lady. 12mo. pp. 123. 3s. Boards. Harris. 1807.

THESE maxims are designed for the use of young persons, and are well calculated to exercise them in reading. The elevated and sublime style of Oriental poetry, the excellence of the morality, a clear large type, and pretty engravings, combine to make this a desirable work for young people. W. Re-s.

Art. 15. *Arithmetic made easy to the Capacities of Children*; containing five hundred and fifty Examples in the fundamental Rules, the Rule of Three, and Practice; a Variety of promiscuous Questions, and Bills of Parcels; designed as an Introduction to other Systems of Arithmetic. To which is subjoined, an Appendix,

dix containing Arithmetical Tables, &c. By John Thomson. 12mo. 1s. half-bound. Williams and Co. 1807.

Mr. T.'s little work is intended to assist schoolmasters in teaching to the young scholar the more necessary rules of Arithmetic; it is well designed for that purpose; and we consider it as holding the same relation to larger treatises on the subject, which the Accidence bears to the Latin Grammar. W. Re-s

Art. 16. *A Father's Advice to his Son at School.* 12mo. 1s. Matthews and Leigh. 1807.

Boys at school generally require to be advised respecting the mode of profiting by tuition, and from a want of this direction spend their own time and the money of their parents to little purpose. The author of this letter is fully aware of the rocks on which boys run in the voyage of education; and his hints should be impressed on all who are sent to school. Though originally designed only for his own child, yet, as the advice here given applies to the case of every boy so circumstanced, we are pleased to see it published; and parents, in our judgment, can scarcely put a shilling to a better use than in purchasing a copy of it for the perusal of their sons. Mo-y.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 17. *An affectionate Address to the Parishioners of Blackburn, on the Institution and Observance of the Sabbath*: published for the Benefit of the Sunday Schools in Blackburn. By Thomas Starkie, M. A. Vicar, &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Mr. Starkie contends that, though the Apostles changed both the *name* and the *day* of the Sabbath, they did not destroy the obligation of Christians to keep the 4th commandment: but it seems difficult to say how a strict regard can be paid to a statute when such an innovation or alteration is introduced. However, the *new Sabbath*, as Mr. S. calls the Lord's Day, is an important institution, the advantages of which must be apparent to every reflecting mind; and the zeal which this preacher displays for its profitable observance does him credit. Do

Art. 18. *Divine Service for the Camp or Garrison*, as performed at the Drum Head: with the Outlines of a few Discourses, or Field Sermons, adapted to the Understanding and Circumstances of the private Soldier. To which is annexed a Sketch of the Form of Consecration of a Stand of Colours. By the Rev. William Henry Pratt, Rector of Jonesborough, in the County of Armagh, &c. 8vo. 1s. Asperne.

That regimental chaplains form no part of our military establishment, at the present time, is a circumstance which excites the regret of this author; who recommends the revival of their appointment, since he has often heard the soldiers deplore the loss of their chaplains in pathetic terms. The service here selected from the Liturgy is short, and the Sermons are still shorter: but the language of them is adapted to the occasion, for it is insinuated that 'the bravest men are the most religious,' and every man is exhorted 'to hold himself in readiness for our last reviewing General.'

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The ceremony of the consecration of colours is chiefly Mr. Pratt's invention, and the whole is creditable to this *volunteer* Chaplain. Mo-y.

AFFAIRS OF IRELAND.

Art. 19. *A short Address to the Most Rev. and Hon. William, Lord Primate of all Ireland;* recommendatory of some Commutation or Modification of the Tythes of that Country: with a few Remarks on the present State of the Irish Church. By the Rev. H. Bate Dudley, Chancellor and Prebendary of Ferns, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

The fair, manly, and liberal view which Mr. Dudley here takes of the subject of Tithes cannot be too highly applauded. Like a man of sound judgment and discretion, he meets the difficulty of the case, and does not suffer the abstract question of right to divert him from considerations of policy. Aware that the process of collecting tithes is perplexing and harassing in the extreme, he does not hesitate to be the advocate for reform; observing that 'the authority that went so far as to alter in order to amend the ceremonials of the church, may safely exert itself to ameliorate the collection of its revenues.' The only remedy for the evils existing in Ireland, respecting tithes, is by a commutation for lands; and Mr. D. has sketched the following project:

'Let the *tythes* of *Ireland*, as well impropriate as clerical, be accurately valued by commissioners under parliamentary authority, (due consideration being previously taken of all unsettled modusses, and allowance made for the probable change of lands, from pasturage to tillage,) so as to ascertain the existing annual value of the tythes of all lands, &c. in each parish or union, to be laid as a rent charge thereon.

'Let these estimates of annual value be calculated into a saleable perpetuity, and be made redeemable by purchase within a time limited, by the respective land-proprietors; and in default thereof, such perpetuity of rent-charge to be disposed by public sale, in like manner as the *Land tax* of *England* has recently been alienated from the crown.

'In any case where the purchase-money may not reach the full amount of the estimated value in perpetuity, the same to be made good out of any surplusage arising from other sales of tythes, in which the produce may exceed the commissioners' valuation; or be nationally provided for by the Irish treasury. The amount of all such sales in perpetuity to be appropriated to the purchase of freehold land, or lands to become freehold glebe-property, and to be annexed to the church for ever.

'Wherever sufficient lands cannot conveniently be obtained within the parish or union, other lands to be purchased in any district, or barony, most contiguous thereto.

'The rent-charge in lieu of *tythes* to remain upon the lands, and to be levied upon the proprietor, until the commutation for the whole parish or union is completed.'—

For the adoption of his plan, he offers the following reasons:

'I. Because it goes the necessary length of setting this perplexing question of *tythes* at rest for ever.

'II. Because, unlike the practical operation of other modes, it leaves no opening for pecuniary litigation, the most baneful of all disputes between the Clergy and their parishioners.

'III. Because it would be found a measure of facility in *Ireland*, though not in *England*; the former country having extensive tracts of land at all times applicable to such commutation: and because such an appropriation would afford further national advantage, by opening a new and extensive source of industry, and agricultural improvement.

'IV. Because it would render the clergy of the established church, and their parishioners, respectably independent of each other; enabling the one to enjoy their revenues without deterioration, and relieving the other from the merciless visitations of middlemen, and their dependents.'

These statements may be fairly left to speak for themselves. Mo. y.

POLITICS.

Art. 20. *Two more Letters* (being the sixth and seventh) *on the Subject of the Catholics*, to my Brother Abraham, who lives in the Country. By Peter Plymley, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Budd.

Art. 21. *The Eighth, Ninth, and Last (the Tenth) Letters on the Subject of the Catholics*, to my Brother Abraham, who lives in the Country. By Peter Plymley, Esq. 2d Edit. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Budd.

Report has assigned these letters to a reverend Gentleman who, in a certain Institution, entertained the fashionable world with lectures on Wit and Humour; and internal evidence might incline us to give credit to the statement, since the writer manifests no ordinary endowment in these playful talents: but we have lately been informed that the idea is erroneous. Whoever he be, however, this P. P. is not less facetious in prose than our old friend the former P. P. was in verse; and by his mode of discussing a subject which is almost worn thread-bare, he has contrived to throw over it the rays of novelty. The dish of Catholic Emancipation is served up by him with true *sauce piquante*; it is in the first style of cookery; and all who know "*what's what*" will applaud his taste and his skill. His wit is argument, and his argument is wit. Intolerance itself must be tickled into a laugh, and bigotry relax the gravity of its muscles, on the perusal of some parts of these pages; the object of which is to shame our Ministers into wisdom, and to convince them, by a strain of vigorous and not common-place reasoning, that their conduct towards the Catholics has not three grains of discretion and sound policy in it. In the writer's estimation, their measures are indeed the very essence of imbecility and ruin; and, under this persuasion, he gives his pen full scope against them.—Brother Abraham's supposed vindication of the attack on Copenhagen draws from Peter the following animadversions:

'The

'The state of the world, you tell me, justified us in doing this. Just God! do we think only of the state of the world when there is an opportunity for robbery, for murder, and for plunder; and do we forget the state of the world when we are called upon to be wise, and good, and just? Does the state of the world never remind us, that we have four millions of subjects whose injuries we ought to atone for, and whose affections we ought to conciliate? Does the state of the world never warn us to lay aside our infernal bigotry, and to arm every man who acknowledges a God and can grasp a sword? Did it never occur to this administration, that they might virtuously get hold of a force ten times greater than the force of the Danish fleet?'

P. P. ridicules the madness of hazarding the loss of Ireland by invasion; when, by rendering justice to four-fifths of its population, we might defy the enemy:

'This (says he) is called government, and the people huzza Friar Perceval, for continuing to expose his country day after day to such tremendous perils as these; cursing the men who would have given up a question in theology to have saved us from such a risque.—The British Empire at this moment is in the state of a peach-blossom, if the wind blows gently from one quarter it survives, if furiously from the other it perishes. A stiff breeze may set in from the north, the Rochefort squadron will be taken, and the Friar will be the most holy of men; if it comes from some other point, Ireland is gone, we curse ourselves as a set of monastic madmen, and call out for the empty satisfaction of Mr. Perceval's head. Such a state of political existence is scarcely credible; it is the action of a mad young fool standing upon one foot and peeping down the crater of Mount Ætna, not the conduct of a wise and a sober people deciding upon their best and dearest interests; and in the name, the much injured name of heaven, what is it all for, that we expose ourselves to these dangers? Is it that we may sell more muslin? Is it that we may acquire more territory? Is it that we may strengthen what we have already acquired? No: nothing of all this; but that one set of Irishmen may torture another set of Irishmen, that Sir Phelim O'Callaghan may continue to whip Sir Toby M'Tackle, his next door neighbour, and continue to ravish his catholic daughters; and these are the measures which the honest and consistent Secretary supports; and this is the secretary whose genius in the estimation of brother Abraham is to extinguish the genius of Bonaparte. Pompey was killed by a slave, Goliah smitten by a stripling, Pyrrhus died by the hand of a woman; tremble, thou great Gaul, from whose head an armed Minerva leaps forth in the hour of danger; tremble, then, scourge of God, a pleasant man is come out against thee, and thou shalt be laid low by a joker of jokes, and he shall talk his pleasant talk against thee, and thou shalt be no more!'

A late measure in parliament, on the subject of with-holding medicines from the enemy, is thus ludicrously exposed:

'At what period was this great plan of conquest and constipation fully developed? In whose mind was the idea of destroying the pride, and the plaisters of France first engendered? Without castor-

oil, they might, for some months, to be sure, have carried on a lingering war; but can they do without Bark? Will the people live under a government where antimonial powders cannot be procured? Will they bear the loss of mercury? "There's the rub." Depend upon it, the absence of the materia medica will soon bring them to their senses, and the cry of *Bourbon and Bolus* burst forth from the Baltic to the Mediterranean.'

Recapitulating his remarks on the state of Ireland, and on the conduct of ministers in resisting the claims of the Catholics, he plays off the *argumentum ad homines* with great dexterity:

'If a man says I have a good place, and I do not choose to lose it, this mode of arguing upon the Catholic question I can well understand; but that any human being with an understanding two degrees elevated above that of an anabaptist preacher, should conscientiously contend for the expediency, and propriety of leaving the Irish Catholics in their present state, and of subjecting us to such tremendous peril in the present condition of the world, it is utterly out of my power to conceive. Such a measure as the Catholic question is entirely beyond the common game of politics; it is a measure in which all parties ought to acquiesce, in order to preserve the place where, and the stake for which they play. If Ireland is gone, where are jobs? where are reversions? where is my brother, Lord Arden? where are my dear and near relations? The game is up, and the Speaker of the House of Commons will be sent as a present to the menagerie at Paris. We talk of waiting from particular considerations, as if centuries of joy and prosperity were before us: in the next ten years our fate must be decided; we shall know, long before that period, whether we can bear up against the miseries by which we are threatened, or not; and yet, in the very midst of our crisis, we are enjoined to abstain from the most certain means of increasing our strength, and advised to wait for the remedy till the disease is removed by death, or health. And now, instead of the plain, and manly policy of increasing unanimity at home, by equalising rights, and privileges, what is the ignorant, arrogant, and wicked system which has been pursued? Such a career of madness and of folly, was, I believe, never run in so short a period. The vigor of the ministry is like the vigor of a grave-digger, the tomb becomes more ready, and more wide for every effort which they make.'

The peculiar vivacity with which P. P. writes has obtained considerable notice; and as his argument is not less solid than brilliant, we hope that it will have some weight even with those who are the objects of his pleasantry; for a man who indulges the playful Muse should not be angry at being paid in his own coin, nor reject good advice, though, like an epigram, it has a sting in its tail. Moy.

Art. 22. *Denmark and Russia.* A Collection of State Papers, which have appeared relative to the Danish and Russian Wars; with prefatory Remarks. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

In employing the *ultima ratio Regum*, we displayed a forcible sort of logic, which it was not in the power of the poor Danes to resist; but

but our cabinet dialectitians are not so successful with their arguments, as our military men with their cannon, mortars, and fire-rockets. The object of the collector of these State-Papers is to shew that the reasons, which our ministers have assigned in justification of their attack on Denmark, are weak and inconsistent; and that the benefits which we have reaped do not compensate for the credit and honour which we have lost by this measure.

On the score of facts, he tells us that the appraisers, sent down by Government to value the Danish prizes, have reported that they are worth only *eight pounds* a ton; while from *thirty* to *forty pounds* a ton is the lowest sum ever paid for building ships of war in merchants' yards; that vessels estimated at so low a price can be fit only for hulks; and that, for the sake of obtaining these hulks and a quantity of naval stores, we have lost the affections of the Danes, and thrown every man of them, with all the resources of their country, into the scale of the enemy. Mo-y.

Art. 23. *A Letter from Mr. Paull to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. M. P.* 8vo. 1s. Budd. 1808.

Mr. Paull being excluded from Parliament, his object in this letter to Mr. Whitbread was to urge that gentleman to prosecute the charges which he himself, when a member of the House of Commons, had preferred against Marquis Wellesley. He probably did not flatter himself with the hopes of success: but in this way he endeavoured to calm his disappointed feelings. The pen having proved itself unable to make his *quietus*, he has since desperately had recourse to the *bare bodkin*. Do

Art. 24. *South American Independence:* or the Emancipation of South America, the Glory and Interest of England. By William Burke, Author of the History of the Campaign of 1805, &c. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway. 1807.

Art. 25. *Additional Reasons for immediately emancipating Spanish America:* deduced from the new and extraordinary Circumstances of the present Crisis; and containing valuable Information respecting the late important Events, both at Buenos Ayres, and in the Caraccas; as well as with respect to the present Disposition and Views of the Spanish Americans: being intended as a Supplement to "South American Independence." By William Burke, Author of that Work. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway.

As the religious persecutions, which formerly raged in Europe, served to people and to civilize North America, so it is not improbable that the political convulsions which have recently occurred may contribute to produce the same effects in the southern parts of that vast continent; especially as we have lately heard of the emigration of Royalty to that portion of the globe, a circumstance which may be regarded as a new æra in its history. We cannot, however, be of opinion that the effects on which some writers speculate will be so soon or so easily obtained as they, in the reveries of theory, seem to imagine. The European population of South America bears little resemblance to that of the United States; and diffe-

rent views must be entertained by its rulers, and very great changes must be operated among the inhabitants, before an enlightened and promising empire can be established.

In a scheme like that which is proposed in the pamphlets before us, it is needless to discuss the validity of the Spanish claims; they are equally good with those of the Portuguese. The simple question is, can we bring the South Americans to embrace our views; and can we find, in this part of the New World, such a preponderance as shall balance the enormous power of France in Europe? Sanguine visionaries would immediately answer *yes*: but more calculations will enter into the views of the sagacious politician on this head than are to be found "in *their* philosophy." After the recent events at Buenos Ayres, it is not very easy to believe that we should be hailed even in the character of Emancipators; and if we were, it would still remain a question whether we could bear the expence, and the drain to our population, which such an undertaking would require, in order to give it complete success. It is to be apprehended that the motive of our interference would be suspected; and that Mexico and Peru would not receive with open arms the offer of Independence, 'under the directing arm, and nerved by the force of Britain.' When we talked of Independence, they would probably suppose that we meant subjugation and dollars. Yet this writer contends for the practicability of our emancipating the Spanish American colonies, and ventures to detail the means of effecting it: but our confidence in him is weakened, when at the outset he tells us that their present conquest would be as easy to us as its original reduction was to the first Spanish invaders. Our attack on Buenos Ayres contradicts this position, and its issue subverts much of the reasoning in the first of these pamphlets. The inferences, deduced in our favour from the oppression of the Indians by the Spaniards, we suspect to be fallacious; and the career of a British army on the American continent might not be so illustrious as it is here delineated.

Undaunted by the result of the Buenos Ayres expedition, however, Mr. Burke, in his second pamphlet, pursues his speculations on the Western Hemisphere, and urges his favourite measure of Emancipation; by which he proposes to create new, independent, and powerful states, out of the reach of our enemy. In order to retrieve our disgrace, he would send another army to Spanish America; not with views of conquest, but to aid these colonies in throwing off their dependence on the mother country. From documents relative to Miranda's expedition to the Caraccas, and from other information, which is deemed important, it is inferred that the Spanish Americans are ready to break their chains: but the evidence here produced is by no means conclusive; nor are we convinced that General Miranda, aided by six or eight thousand British troops in the Caraccas, would become the Washington of South America. Mr. B. seems not to make any estimate of the counter-action which would be produced on bigoted Catholics, by the reflection that we are heretics.

Wild projects of this nature are not perhaps intitled to serious discussion: but we may observe on them in general, that, since our inter-

interference in South America would probably excite suspicion, and since a new Empire may now be considered as erected in the Brazils, the wisest and safest course which we could pursue, in that quarter of the globe, would be to advise His Majesty of the Brazils to establish a government on more liberal principles than that of Portugal; and to diffuse those privileges and blessings among his subjects, which will propagate the wish from Mexico to Patagonia, that every province were under his sway. Such a measure is preferable to sending 6 or 8000 British troops either to the Caraccas or to La Plata. Mo-y.

Art. 26. *Ins and Outs called to an Account*, or the Wrath of John Bull. 8vo. 2s. Maxwell. 1808.

All parties endeavour to put their hands into John Bull's pocket, and their words into his mouth, and thus to lay both his guineas and his common sense under contribution. According to this report, John is very angry with the late ministry for not sending five or six millions to the Emperor Alexander, and is very ready to be convinced that the outrage on Denmark, committed by the present, admits of justification. In short, Johnny is in the most furious passion with the *Outs*, and discerns in their conduct nothing but folly and crime. A writer on the other side can make him change his tone, and vent his wrath on the *Ins*.—*Ainsi va le monde.* Do.

Art. 27. *A few Observations on the present State of the Nation:* in a Letter to his Grace the Duke of Bedford. By the Rev. F. Randolph, D. D. 8vo. pp. 99. 2s. 6d. Wilkie and Robinson. 1808.

National flattery, conceit and arrogance, disregard of painful realities, and unmanly abuse of our enemy, which distinguish so many publications of the day, do not offend in these pages. Dr. R., we think, appreciates the situation of the country fairly and impartially; his sentiments are characterized by soberness and moderation, yet are expressed with energy; and the whole performance is penned in the spirit both of piety and patriotism. Though he discountenances arrogance, he by no means encourages despondency; and while he is the advocate of moderation, he displays zeal for the interests of the country. We wish that the temper which he manifests were more general. Jo.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 28. *The History of Greece,* in easy Verse; from the earliest Period to its Conquest by the Romans. By W. R. Johnson, A.M. Illustrated with a Map. 12mo. pp. 129. 2s. 6d. half bound. Tabart. 1807.

To assist young persons in fixing in their minds the more particular incidents that happened in the several states of Greece is the object of this attempt; and the execution so far answers the design, that the reader will find a concise yet comprehensive history of that celebrated country, expressed in easy numbers: while circumstances which are not related in the verse are occasionally given in explanatory

notes at the bottom of the page. We think, however, that *no memory* can be expected to retain the whole contents of this little volume.

W. Re-s.

Art. 29. *The Inferno of Dante Alighieri*, with a Translation in English Blank Verse, Notes, and a Life of the Author. By the Rev. Henry Francis Cary, A.M. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 16s. Boards. Carpenter.

In the first grand requisite of a translator, *fidelity*, Mr. Cary seems to have outstripped his predecessors; for it is seldom indeed that we have been able to detect him in the too common operations of adding to or subtracting from his original. When we add that his versification is generally poetical and harmonious, and that his biographical sketch and notes are expressed with brevity and neatness, we conceive that we have duly appreciated the character of his labours. The introduction to the 24th Canto combines the rare merit of closeness and beauty:

'In the year's early nonage, when the sun
Tempers his tresses in Aquarius' urn,
And now towards equal day the nights recede,
When as the rime upon the earth puts on
Her dazzling sister's image, but not long
Her milder sway endures, then riseth up
The village hind, whom fails his wintry store,
And looking out beholds the plain around
All whiten'd, whence impatiently he smites
His thighs, and to his hut returning in,
There paces to and fro, wailing his lot,
As a discomfited and helpless man;
Then comes he forth again, and feels new hope
Spring in his bosom, finding e'en thus soon
The world hath chang'd its coun'nance, grasps his crook,
And forth to pasture drives his little flock:' &c.

In the event of a second impression, we would recommend the revision of such lines as,

'When all unawares is gone, he inwardly'—
'Of men, women, and infants. Then to me'—
'And pitiless women had slain all their males.'—
'Why greedily thus bendest more on me,'—
'Fell ruining far as to Minos down,'—
'Methinks, and more water between the vale'—
'Presented before mine, with similar art
'And count'nance similar, so that from both,' &c.

The cultivators of Italian literature will, we doubt not, exhort Mr. Cary to bestow his leisure and talents on other celebrated effusions of the Tuscan muse.

Muir.

Art. 30. *Poems by E. Somebody*. 8vo. pp. 115. Dublin, Colbert.

Though none of the compositions in this little volume may claim unmixed applause, the author has in some few specimens displayed so much

much fancy and feeling, and so good an ear for the harmony of numbers, that we are almost tempted to offer him the hazardous counsel of persevering in the walks of poetry. This opinion, however, must be understood as given under the supposition that the whole collection was written when he was under twenty years of age. If the productions are of a later period, they would argue a want of that strength and fullness of mind which are essential to poetical excellence.—The versification is usually smooth, as we before intimated; yet it unaccountably happens that the rhymes are in too many instances no rhymes in England, whatever they may be at Dublin: ex. gr. *fading* and *receding*, *regulators* and *repeaters*, *beams* and *flames*, *air* and *appear*. In a ballad, of which all the four lines of every stanza are made to rhyme, this difference of pronunciation has presented us with an ordinary English stanza consisting of alternate rhymes:

'Now pity turns to shun the *tale*
And mercy would the scene *conceal*,
But angry truth withdraws the *veil*:
To curse his child see Walter *kneel*.'

It may also be remarked that these stanzas of four rhymes are extremely wearisome, from the frequent repetition of the same sound. It is, moreover, proper to warn the author, if he wishes to be a poet on the eastern side of the channel, that *burns*, *world*, *hour*, &c are monosyllables; and we rather apprehend that the cold criticism, which prevails among us, will scarcely allow currency to the phrase,

'His absent eye not *seeing* what it *views*,' (p. 54.)

though it appears to be used too deliberately to fall under the vulgar denomination of an Irish mistake:—at least the author has coolly taken the bull by the horns.

What mode of speech, however, can possibly match *companion* with *dominion*, or *woven* with *Heaven*?

From these specimens, our readers will be inclined to think that our praises have been whimsically bestowed on the author's versification, and that he is a mere bungler in poetry, without any command over language or skill in combination. Yet we think that the following lines prove that he can write with elegance. They are extracted from an ode to Chance, the idea of which is borrowed from the Idler:

'For tho' her (Hope's) fairy fictions fail,
Tho' all her gifts the winds have scatter'd,
Still must I listen to her tale,
And trust, as if she ne'er had flatter'd.

'But thou, O chance, wilt sometimes give,
Unask'd, unpromis'd, unpersuaded,
What she ne'er taught me to believe,
With all her wild enchantments aided.

'Perhaps while I in simple lays,
To thee an humble tribute bringing,
For me some little leaf of bays,
Planted by thee is somewhere springing.

'No painted scenes to thee belong,
No 'witching tales, or smiles betraying,
Then Goddess take this idle Song,
Thy deeds of kindness ill repaying.'

An address to the Wind, written in December 1805, thus opens:

'What would that hollow voice explain,
In loud and melancholy strain?'

After some inquiries, which are not very clearly expressed, the author proceeds:

'Or dost thou come o'er desart lands,
O'er fierce Arabia's burning sands;
O'er pathless waste, and trackless wild,
Where nature's verdure never smil'd;
To tell of human suffering there,
Of dying groans and faint despair?
Thro' ruin'd cloisters hast thou come,
And howl'd along the haunted gloom;
And pass'd the pale nun's spectred form,
And mix'd her murmurs with thy storm?

'Or does that hollow blast bemoan,
The desolation it has done?
The buried seaman's lot deplore,
The widow weeping on the shore;
The fate of many a hero bold,
And many a gallant crew laid cold?
Or did it lend the fatal gale
That swell'd the Victory's conquering sail?*
Or softly was it hovering nigh,
To steal the hero's dying sigh,
Ere lost amidst the battle's roar,
To waft it to its native shore?

'Ah! gentler let it now complain,
It waves the reeds o'er Nelson slain!' Den.

Art. 31. *The Daisy*; or cautionary Verses adapted to the Ideas of Children from four to eight Years old. Illustrated with thirty Engravings on Copper-plate. 12mo. 1s. Harris. 1807.

This little work answers its design; the poetry is easy; and the subjects are such as are well calculated to produce and nourish good sentiments. W. Re.

Art. 32. *Old Friends in a new Dress*: or familiar Fables in Verse, adorned with Cuts. 12mo. 6d. Darton. 1807.

Those of Esop's Fables are here turned into verse of which the morals are most easily comprehended by children; and the author

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'* The ship in which Lord Nelson was killed.'

has

nas ingeniously contrived to interweave the application with the subject. The selection is judicious, and the style is simple and appropriate. W. Re-s.

Art. 33. *The Fifth of November*; a Drama, in Three Acts. Written for Schools. By Edmund Philip Bridel, LL. D., Master of the Academy, Islington. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

The object of this little piece is to adapt School Theatricals to the capacities of youth, by the introduction of characters suited to their conceptions, and at the same time by exciting virtues attainable at their age, without *launching into Heroics*. For this purpose, a very simple play, on the subject of carrying about a Guy Fawkes, in which boys are the *dramatis personæ*, is constructed; and the moral resulting from the whole is that 'virtue is above the reach of no age or rank in life, when the heart is good.' Here children display more amiableness than is often found in grown men. Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *An Account of the Navigation and Commerce of the Black Sea.* Collected from Original Sources. By Charles Wilkinson. 8vo. pp. 114. 2s. 6d. Collins. 1807.

Mr. W.'s pamphlet is intended as a manual for the trader to the South of Russia, and descends into minute particulars concerning adventures to those shores. Directions are given respecting the sort of cargo which should be taken out, how to proceed on the voyage, and where to seek for markets. The whole is compiled chiefly from a French work published in 1805, and from Storch's Picture of Russia.

Before we had accepted the challenge of our enemy to join in a commercial war, we should have said that, in a country such as ours, tracts like the present were of the utmost utility: but, if actual circumstances prevent it from being of practical benefit, it will still gratify the curious. With regard to Cherson, the author states that it may be made the mart of the whole commerce of Poland; and he says that the articles proper to import to it are 'wines, fine cloths, West-India coffee, refined sugars, olive oil, dried fruits, various articles of silk, salted provisions, fashionable articles of perfumery and household furniture, sweetmeats, liquors, spices, drugs for dying, such as indigo, gall nuts, and the like.

'The produce of Poland may be conveyed to the ports on the Black Sea, by the way of Akkermen on the Niester, to Otschakov by the Bog, and to Cherson by the Nieper. Waving the manifest advantages of this triple interior navigation, it is much more easy and œconomical to convey them to the Black Sea by land, than to transport them to the Vistula, and there embark them for the Baltic.

'The French, in particular, seem sanguine in their expectations from this new route of commerce, not only as to objects of general speculation, but especially in what relates to their marine. Articles for their navy, which hitherto they could only procure from the ports of Riga and Petersburgh, they can now import, at much less expence and risk, through the medium of the Black Sea. Even

Even in time of peace this must be a great advantage, but still more so during war; as, by means of the canal of Languedoc, the articles in question may be safely conveyed for the supply of Brest.

'The French seem also to expect, through this new channel, supplies of salted beef, equal to that of Ireland, and procured at a much cheaper rate; at the same time that they hope to become, more or less, our rivals in the trade of Russia.'

He farther adds that 'the facility of procuring masts and ship-timber in general, through this channel, is considered by the French as an object of first-rate consequence to their navy and mercantile concerns. The masts were sent to Toulon, and pronounced equal to those usually procured from Riga, though greatly inferior in price, owing to the œconomy of passing them through the Black Sea.'

The author gives the following account of a place which is much noticed by all the writers who have lately treated of those countries:*

'Odessa is well situated for the commerce of Bessarabia, as for that of the palatinates of Braslaw, Podolia, Volhinia, and other provinces acquired by the Russians in the two partitions of Poland. The Emperor Alexander has adopted several measures for the speedy increase of the trade of this place; in particular, by granting the free transit of all foreign articles imported by sea, or arriving from other towns of Russia. He has also established an *entrepot*, where all unprohibited articles of importation may remain in magazines without paying the duties of entrance, &c. till the time of sale. This favour is the more important, as those duties, in Russia, are high; so that merchants are often obliged to consign part of their capitals for their discharge.

'An exchange has been built for the use of merchants. Contested points are settled by a court of arbitration. All agreements are made on stamped paper, which, besides the stamp-duty, pay one per cent. *ad valorem*. The postage of letters is under good regulations; the conveyance is by Brodi, a town of Austrian Gallicia. England, Austria, Spain, the King of Naples, with the Republic of Ragusa, and of the Seven Isles, have Consuls at Odessa. The population amounts to nine or ten thousand.

'Much imported merchandize is disposed of here, for the use of Poland. The entrance of foreign brandy is strictly prohibited. That of rum is allowed, on paying a considerable duty.

'The corn of Poland is the principal article of commerce, of which there are two sorts, the hard and the soft. The latter is apt to spoil during long passages. The exportations of hemp, tallow, &c. are less considerable. The deliveries of corn are made between the months of May and August. From five hundred to a thousand waggon-loads at times arrive in the course of a day, when it becomes difficult to water the oxen, as the wells of the town hardly afford a sufficient supply for the inhabitants.

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* Our readers may compare this extract with a former statement, quoted from a larger work by Mr. Oddy, in our Number for August 1806. (Vol. l.) p. 343.

'Firing

'Firing and provisions are in general dear. House-rent also is very expensive, the buildings not being proportionate to the number of inhabitants, and of strangers resorting thither.'

By these passages, the reader will be enabled to form some judgment with respect to the information which he may procure from this tract. Jo.

Art. 35. *An admonitory Epistle to the Rev. Rowland Hill, A. M.* occasioned by the Republication of his "Spiritual Characteristics, or most curious Sale of Curates," by Phileleutheros. 8vo. 1s. Conder.

Rough admonition is very rarely attributed, especially by the object of it, to a friendly motive; though in the present instance Mr. Hill, who appears to have dispensed his kindness in the same ungracious way, must not call the good intention in question. Phileleutheros, with professions of regard, charges the revered satirist with having sullied his pages by the use of such scurrilous, profane, and vulgar language as is beyond all precedent in the religious world. He accuses him also of a great want of charity; and of inconsistency of character, by calling himself a churchman and yet acting as a dissenter. In fine, he invites the reverend gentleman to serious self-examination, by telling him that he mistakes 'excentricity and disorder, bitterness and pride, for evidences of superior sanctity and heavenly zeal.' Such are the "faithful wounds" which are here inflicted; and if the divine cannot prevail on himself to kiss the hand from which they proceed, he will, it is hoped, have the good sense to be cautious, in future, of giving occasion for a repetition of them. Mo.y.

Art. 36. *An Essay on the Character of Ulysses*, delineated by Homer: originally read at the Literary Society at Exeter. By the late Richard Hole, LL.B. Crown 8vo. pp. 144. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1807.

Mr. Hole's design in this essay was to shew that Homer, in delineating the character of Ulysses, intended to produce 'a model of piety and patience, of exemplary affection to his family, friends, and Country,—of consummate valour, conduct, fortitude, and wisdom; not perfectly faultless, but that of an elevated human character, fit for admiration and imitation.' The author, however, says that the good qualities exhibited must not be appreciated according to our apprehension of right and wrong, enlightened as we are by divine revelation, but according to those principles which may reasonably be concluded to have prevailed in Homer's days. The Essay was found among the posthumous papers of Mr. Hole, and was regarded by his friends as possessing that value which rendered it deserving of publication. In discussing the merits of the character, though the subject is treated in rather too desultory a manner, great ability is no doubt shewn; and the admirers of Homer's excellencies will derive considerable pleasure from a perusal of the tract. It displays a variety of erudition, and reflects credit on the society by whom it was originally received, as well as on the author, who was a member of that body. W.Re-s.

Art.

Art. 37. *Thoughts on the Marriages of the Labouring Poor*; containing Instructions for their Conduct before and after their entering into that important State; with four authentic and moral Stories illustrating the Subject. By Thomas Kelly. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Kearsley. 1807.

The subject of this little treatise is of national importance, and we are happy in seeing it taken up by one who seems able to do it justice. Mr. Kelly says that he ranks in that class for whose benefit the work is particularly written: but we should have some doubts on this head, arising from the correct style and occasional elevation of language which it manifests: if, notwithstanding, he be really what he asserts, he is certainly worthy of moving in a higher sphere. The miseries of the labouring married men are here assigned to 1. A want of due preparation for the important state which they are desirous of entering; 2. The neglect of choosing a proper partner for life; 3. Want of economy after marriage; 4. Neglect of their children's education; 5. The custom of suffering their families to be idle; 6. The pernicious habit of drinking.—The principal causes of the failure of a young woman's expectations of matrimonial happiness are assigned to, 1. The neglect of seriously considering, and duly preparing themselves for that state; 2. Want of caution in choosing a husband; 3. Inattention to the arduous duties of the wife and mother. On all of these particulars, very valuable advice is given; and four tales are introduced to shew the advantages and disadvantages attending married persons, according as they observe their respective duties. We freely state it as our opinion that this tract has great merit, and we warmly recommend it to gentlemen for introduction among their domestics, or poor neighbours. Were it somewhat condensed, and made still cheaper, much benefit might accrue to the public from a judicious distribution of it by clergymen among their parishioners. W. Res.

Art. 38. *Essays on moral and religious Subjects*; calculated to increase the Love of God, and the Growth of Virtue in the youthful Mind. By M Pelham. 12mo. pp. 154. 3s. Boards. Harris. 1807.

It is the object of these essays to treat of 'moral and religious subjects without damping the cheerfulness of youth, or casting a gloom over innocent vivacity.' Respecting their value, and the importance of the subjects, we are ready to speak in favourable terms: but we are fearful that their unvaried serious turn will make them unpalatable to most young persons. It is certainly very desirable that youth should be always obedient, submissive to Providence, patient, docile, pious, good tempered, and innocently cheerful; and whoever contributes to their attaining these good qualities is a benefactor to his country: yet a person may miss his mark through an excess of zeal, and may fail of doing that good which, if he had been less anxious, he might have been the means of accomplishing.

We must add, however, that, while the author discovers the best intentions, the language is correct, and the sentiments are well illustrated: we doubt not, therefore, that the work will be approved in those religious families in which it may be introduced. D?

Art.

Art. 39. *The Student's Companion*; or a Summary of general Knowledge, comprehending Geography, Natural History, Astronomy, Chronology, History, Biography, Commerce, Belles Lettres, History of Literature, Theology, and Politics. Illustrated by Engravings. By John Sabine. 12mo. pp. 382. 6s. Boards. Egerton. 1807.

Mr. Sabine has compressed into this volume a great mass of information, and has formed an useful introduction to the subjects on which it professes to treat. The accounts, though concise, are perspicuous and comprehensive; and the knowlege conveyed on several articles is such as cannot otherwise be obtained, without consulting a variety of works. We think that the public is under obligations to the author for the pains which he has taken in smoothing the way to useful knowlege, and in adding to the many valuable summaries already compiled for the benefit of youth. W. Rees.

Art. 40. *A Speech on the Utility of the Learned Languages*, delivered at the Great Room, No. 22, Piccadilly, on the 9th of April 1807, when the following Question was discussed;—"Is the Assertion true, that the Learned Languages, as a Part of general Education, are worse than useless?" To which is added a *humourous Speech* on the Question relating to the Mad Dogs. By Samuel Fleming, A. M. late Tutor to the Young Roscius. 8vo. 1s. Bent.

In the monuments of antient literature, we find that *proprietas splendorque verborum*, that *copia figurarum*, and that *vis explicandi*, which have been of essential benefit in assisting the judgment and forming the taste of all who have carefully studied them. Now, of what materials is *our* language composed? to whom have our elegant writers been most indebted? on what models have our best historians, orators, and poets been formed? among whom did the arts flourish with unrivalled glory; and whose footsteps have we been obliged to follow in their revival? in what tongue are the originals of our Scriptures to be found; and what studies are requisite to a critical knowlege of them? When these questions are answered, we may leave it to the common sense of every reader to decide, whether the study of the learned languages be "worse than useless," even as a part of general education.

Mr. Fleming has not sufficiently exposed the absurdity of the assertion which he combats: but his oration, as a popular address, is lively, and was meant to be witty. His *humorous speech* on Mad Dogs we should have been sorry to have been under the necessity of hearing, though our sad destinies have compelled us to read it. Mo-y.

Art. 41. *The Odes of Anacreon of Teos*, literally translated into English Prose. With Notes. By the Rev. Thomas Gilpin, A. B. 2d Edition. 12mo. pp. 191. 7s. 6d. Boards. Mawman, &c.

It is stated in the preface that 'this work is chiefly designed for the use of those who have made no great progress in Greek literature; and that it may the more effectually answer the end proposed, the translation is as literal, as the different idioms of the Greek and Latin languages will allow.'—Mr. Gilpin has omitted

to prove that the works of Anacreon are proper for young beginners; and he has not mentioned in what manner a literal translation is likely to assist the learner of any language. Our opinion is that such a translation is more calculated to obstruct than to promote his improvement. By superseding the necessity of frequent resort to the lexicon and the grammar, it will betray the learner into negligence and idleness; while it renders him inattentive to the construction of sentences, and indifferent to the expressive delicacy and discriminating variety of the Greek tongue. The particular work before us may produce still more lamentable effects; for the young man, who, after having been told that Anacreon is one of the most admired of the antient poets, shall consider such a translation as this a fair specimen of his powers, will certainly begin and end his classical studies with the prosaic labors of Mr. Gilpin. We mean not to express any regret, however, that Mr. G. did not attempt a poetical version of the Teian strains; since the following distich, from the celebrated epigram on the statute of Niobe, convinces us that, if a translation of Anacreon was destined to come from *his* hands, it is much better in prose than in rhyme:

"From life to stone, from stone to life, transform'd, I stand,
By Jove's supreme decree,—by *Praxitéles*' hand."

We are told also, at p. viii., that 'no pains have been spared to render this work a *correct* and *useful* edition of Anacreon.' Of its *usefulness*, we have already ventured to suggest a doubt; on its correctness, perhaps the gross mistake abovementioned will prevent even our most juvenile readers from placing much reliance. Thirteen errata are corrected, as if the book contained no more;—a proof of some dexterity at least. They are not indeed confined to the spelling or the accentuation. Ἄφηκεν εἰς βέλεμνον (p. 32.) is not "shot himself at me instead of a dart," but—*shot himself into a dart.*—Μάχη; ἔσω μ' ἐχέτω; is simply *the battle having hold of me within*; and the learner would be equally misled by 'the battle *rages* within me,' which are the words of the text (p. 32), and by the translation in the note (p. 148) which is said to be *verbatim*, 'the battle having *itself* within me, *i. e.* exerting its force, spending its rage, within me.'

One of the sweetest of the delicious poems of Anacreon is that from which Shakspeare, had he been master of the Greek language, would have been accused of stealing the tender enthusiastic wish of Romeo,—"O that I were a glove upon that hand," &c.—"O that I were a mirror (says Anacreon) that you might always view me! a robe, that you might always wear me! water, or a perfume, that I might wash or anoint you! and the ribband on your breast, and the pearl on your neck, and the sandal on your feet, that you might even only tread upon me!" Mr Gilpin *does* this (to use his own phrase) in the following manner:

'But I would be a mirror, that you might ever view me; I would become a vest, that you might always wear me: I am willing to be water, that I may bathe your person: ointment, O Lady! I would be; then would I perfume you; and the fillet of *your* bosom, and

and the pearl on *your* neck. Even a sandal I would be; only that you might tread upon me with *your* feet.'

We are sorry to witness here some of that moral *cant* which has lately become so very fashionable, and which never offends so deeply as when it is applied to the works of the antients. It is really too much to censure the *impurity* and *brutality* of a man, who very naturally declares that he would rather be drunk than dead; an alternative in which we apprehend the severest moralist might acquiesce, without censure on the choice so candidly avowed by the poet.

If our readers still entertain any doubts respecting the qualifications of this translator for giving a faithful picture of the most tender, joyous, and delicate compositions in the world, we must beg leave to refer him to the work itself; and the more he examines it, the more perhaps he will agree with us in thinking that Mr. G. is a worse enemy to his original than even the great destroyer, Time. The motto for *his third edition* we will venture to recommend from Horace:

"*Si quid olim* lusit *Anacreon*,
DELEVIT"—

A well-engraved portrait of the Teian Bard is prefixed to this volume, which is also handsomely printed.

Den-n.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 42. *The Claims of the Establishment*, preached August 30, 1807, at Croydon, in Surrey, by John Ireland, D. D. Prebendary of Westminster, and Vicar of Croydon. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Dr. Ireland here maintains that the ordering of ecclesiastical affairs does strictly and rightfully belong to the civil authority; that all who refuse to concur with the appointments of this authority subject themselves to an inferiority of civil privileges; and that, as on this ground toleration is rather a boon than a right, the liberarality of the Establishment is not less conspicuous than the solidity of her claims to all the honours and emoluments of the State. He also contends that, as the submission of the Catholics to our Government can only be partial, their privileges cannot remain entire.—The reply which may be made to this statement is obvious: but it will not be required of us, in the report of a sermon, to discuss the great doctrine of religious liberty; which Dr. I. carefully keeps out of sight, and which, indeed, on his principles, can have no existence. We must not believe, however, that a sort of logic will be relished in the nineteenth century, which would justify intolerance and persecution to the fullest extent.

Mo-y.

Art. 43. *Obstacles to Success in the religious Education of Children:* preached at the Rev. William Wall's Meeting-House, Pavement, Moorfields, at a Monthly Association of Ministers and Churches, Jan 7, 1808. By Robert Winter. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Maxwell and Wilson.

The preacher accounts for the evil which he laments, from the superficial regard paid to religion in families; from the relaxation of domestic discipline, on the one hand, and from undue severity on the

other; from the heart and character not being duly disciplined in instruction; from the unsuitable temper and conduct of heads of families; from the negligent attendance of young persons on religious assemblies; and from the habits and customs of the present age. The last mentioned cause is more powerful than all the rest. To the torrent of fashion and public opinion, individuals and families afford a feeble resistance; and when a nation becomes rich, luxurious, proud, and dissipated, we can neither be surprised at, nor hope to overcome, the obstacles to religious education. Mo.y.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A Constant and old Subscriber objects to the translation of *sensus communis* into *plain good sense*, in one of the passages which we selected from Mr. Hodgson's Juvenal, in our last Number. He quotes the authority of Gilbert Wakefield, to prove that this phrase means "a common feeling or sympathy with others;" and this interpretation (he adds) is supported by the preceding line, in which not the folly, but the *hauteur* of the Emperor's relation is censured.—We are perfectly aware that *common sympathy* is in general the proper translation of the words: but that they admit the interpretation given to them in the couplet which we quoted is perfectly clear from the expression of Horace,

"*Communi sensu* plane caret;"—

and we think that this *common sense* is the *true sense* of Juvenal, from the context, and from the whole spirit of the preceding lines. The Satirist does not appear to us to reproach the high-born Rubellius, (as Mr. Wakefield did the dignified clergy,) with want of feeling for the sufferings of inferiors, but to remonstrate against the absurdity of his ill-placed vanity, the *folly* of his *hauteur*.

From our correspondent's imperfect allusion to the article, for which he wishes us to supply a reference, we are not able to recollect and to specify it. It must have been at a greater distance of time than he supposes. Den-n.

We agree with J. in some though not in all of his remarks, but he must excuse us from returning to the subject.

Mr. Baynes's letter is received; and his book, which is now before us, shall be noticed as soon as other affairs permit.

We are sensible of the manly and liberal turn of mind displayed in the letters of *Veritas*; and were not our engagements numerous and imperious, we should cherish his correspondence: but, though his inquiring genius and undaunted mode of investigation are such as Reviewers, who are worthy of the name, must approve, we are forced to relinquish all extra-official discussions. Though, therefore, we shall always be happy to receive his communications, we cannot promise distinctly to reply to them. Mo.y.

*** The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for May, on the 1st of June.

Errata, p. 365, 379, 384, 405, 443.

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
FIFTY-FIFTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Discussions du Code Civil dans le Conseil d'Etat*, &c.; *i. e.* Discussions respecting the Civil Code, in the Council of State; preceded by the corresponding Articles of the Text and the *Projet*; with Notes, principally relating to the Observations and the Jurisprudence of the Courts of Reversal and of Appeal. On the Plan of M. *Regnaud*, (of St. Jean d'Angely) Counsellor of State, &c. &c. By MM. JOUANNEAU and L. C. DE SOLON. 4to. 2 Vols. Paris.

WHATEVER progress was made, during the last century, in various parts of useful or ornamental knowlege, it does not appear that this epoch has reason to boast of any considerable advances in the theory or the practice of Legislation. Russia, Prussia, and Tuscany had their legislating sovereigns: but their codes are little known out of the states for which they were framed; and we do not find that they had the effect of ameliorating either the constitution or the jurisprudence even of those countries. In France, indeed, a noble undertaking had been carried on for a considerable length of time, and was near its completion, when, with many other extensive and salutary projects, it was overturned by the Revolution. We allude to the reduction and reformation of the Customary Laws of its different provinces. From the work of one of our own countrymen, which we are now perusing *, we learn that this

* *Horæ Juridicæ Subsecivæ*, by C. Butler, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn.

design was conceived in the reign of Charles the Seventh. Soon after he expelled the English from France, he published an ordonnance, by which he directed all the customs and usages of his kingdom to be committed to writing, to be verified by the practitioners of each place, and to be sanctioned by the great council and parliament; and he ordered that the customs thus sanctioned, and those only, should have the force of law: but such were the obstacles in the way of this measure, that forty-two years elapsed before the customs of any one place were verified. From that time, the measure lingered till the reign of Louis XII.; it was then resumed; and about the year 1609, the reduction of the customs was completed. Those of Paris, Orleans, Normandy, and some others, were soon afterward reformed: those of Artois and St. Omers underwent this revision about the middle of the last century; and the reformation of the others was nearly finished.—The ultimate object of the plan was to abolish all local customs; and, from the general body of the customary law, and the doctrines of the civil law, to establish an uniformity of jurisprudence throughout the kingdom. It was a favourite object of the Chancellor *d'Aguesseau*; and he had digested it into a regular plan.

In the reign of Louis XIV., much was done for the improvement of the national jurisprudence of France: the French lawyers speak in the highest terms of several of his ordonnances; and we are assured by them that they contain the wisest and most salutary regulations, methodically and clearly expressed. Certain it is that, in every maritime state of Europe, his *Ordonnance sur la Marine* is read and admired.—During the reign of Louis XV., little was accomplished in the prosecution of this object: but, in the early days of the French Revolution, its admirers foretold the wonderful improvements which it would effect in government and law. Other constitutions, it was said, had been fortuitously framed; their parts had been composed to meet present emergencies, and constituted no systematic whole; they contained many discordant principles, many jarring forms, much unmixed evil, some imperfect good, many institutions which had long survived their motive, and many of which reason had never been the author nor utility the object. The legislators of the Revolution were to produce a very different code. *They* were to tolerate nothing of antiquity which reason did not respect; to shrink from no novelty to which reason might lead; to despise narrow coastings, and to hazard, under the polarity of reason, a bolder navigation; to dicover, in unexplored regions, the treasure of public felicity; and to diffuse it, in their legislative enactments, through-

every portion of the Gallic empire.—Such were the splendid prophecies of the effects of the new jurisprudence; and it is unnecessary to add how little the event corresponded with the prediction.

The fate of the first legislators of the Revolution did not deprive them of a tribe of imitators; and the work before us shews that, in the midst of his victories, *Bonaparte* aspires to legislative fame. We hope that he will deserve it: for we acknowlege our wish that, under his auspices, France may excell in all the peaceful arts; and particularly that his subjects may enjoy every kind of happiness which a permanent system of wise and well administered legislation can confer. Such a wish is not unpatriotic, nor unprovident, nor even *generous*: for it is impossible that France should be wise or happy, and her neighbours not be the better for her wisdom and her happiness.

The *Code Napoleon* has just reached us; and we find in it an account of the discussions which took place among the persons principally consulted in its formation. *Bonaparte*, as First Consul, takes his share in their deliberations: he is frequently out-voted; and the report does not afford the least ground for supposing that the freedom of debate was checked, in the slightest degree, by consular authority. Pliny frequently compliments Trajan on the liberty of speech which the senate enjoyed in his presence; and though between Trajan and *Bonaparte* we can trace little resemblance, yet, from the records of those days and from the volumes before us, it is evident that Pliny never spoke nor affected to speak with more freedom before Trajan, than *Tronchet* appears to have debated before *Bonaparte*.

In an early page of the work, a deliberation of some length takes place on the article of the code which "forbids Judges to pronounce generally, and by way of regulation, on the causes which come before them." A discussion was thus induced on the nature of that important and extensive portion of the law of every civilized state, which arises from the opinions delivered by courts of justice and the consequences deducible from them. The members of the council appear to have taken a distinction between legislative and doctrinal interpretation; and they charge the Judges of the old *regime* with having assumed a right to the former, by extending the operation of the law by their own regulations under the name of *arrêts*: but they seem to feel the necessity of allowing to Judges a considerable degree of latitude for the doctrinal interpretation of the law. In the course of the discussion, M. *Rœderer* asks, if the *Code civil* had been wholly silent on the right of aliens to inherit property, to whom it should belong?

M. *Tronchet* replies that, by analogy to the general principles of the code, which exclude a stranger from civil rights, the Judge should have pronounced him incapable of taking property by descent; and this opinion seems to be generally adopted by the council.—We conceive that M. *Rœderer* was not very happy in his question: for the moment it is admitted that the law excludes strangers from all civil rights, and that the taking of lands by descent is a civil right, the question is answered.—On the whole, considering the importance of the subject, we must express our surprize at the jejune and unsatisfactory manner in which it appears to have been treated.

We are as little edified with the discussion on the effects of Civil Death. We find it inseparable from capital punishment: but several offences, which are not capital, are punished by civil death; and it then becomes a question with the members of the council, what is to be the fate of the wife and her subsequent children by the husband? is the marriage to subsist? are the children to be legitimate?—Some of the members contend that, marriage being a civil contract, and civil death being a dissolution of all civil contracts, it must operate to dissolve the marriage, and bastardize the future offspring. Here the *humanity of the First Consul* is eloquent. 'Society,' he cries, 'is sufficiently revenged in the loss sustained by the criminal of all his property and all his other rights. Must the wife also suffer? must she be violently torn away from an union which has identified her existence with that of her husband? The wife would say, "if you had terminated my husband's existence, you would have permitted me to cherish his memory; you suffer him to live, then permit me to comfort him."—For acting up to these sentiments you would esteem her virtue; then legalize the attachment which you admire.'—The harsher sentiment, however, prevails over that of the First Consul, and the article stands in these words: "The previous marriage of a person civilly dead is dissolved in respect to all civil effects, and his wife and his heirs are intitled to the same rights and actions as if he were actually dead.

On all points which relate to marriage, we find that the state is every thing, and the church nothing. After two publications of the marriage at a distance of eight days by a public officer, before the door of the *maison commune*, with several other civil formalities, the parties are again to present themselves to the civil officer, and, in the presence of four witnesses, declare to him their agreement to become husband and wife; then, in the name of the law, he is to pronounce that they are married, to draw up a legal act of the marriage, and to deposit that act in the public office.—M. *Tronchet* proposes

that

that the public officers should read to the couple, the chapter of the code on the duties of husband and wife. The First Consul declares his warm approbation of the motion, 'because the proposed lecture will leave on the minds of the married couple, recollections which will lead them to inquire of the Law what should be their conduct when circumstances of difficulty afterward occur.' The Consul *Cambacérès* observes that the chapter in question mentions nothing of the duties of obedience and fidelity which marriage imposes on the woman: but the First Consul, who is never at a loss on great occasions, immediately proposes that the 'civil officer himself should explain them to her.'—It must be owned that the gipsey jargon, as Mr. Burke has somewhere termed it, of these modern Solons, does not give us an exalted notion of either their wisdom or their philosophy.

It appears that the subject of Divorce was much discussed in the council; and finally it was admitted. The husband may claim a divorce for the adultery of his wife: but the wife can only claim it for the adultery of her husband if he has kept a concubine in their house. Either husband or wife is intitled to a divorce if the other has been condemned to an infamous punishment; and mutual and uniform consent to a divorce, expressed in the manner and accompanied by the conditions and trials prescribed by the law, is held to afford sufficient proof that the tempers of the parties are incompatible, and that a peremptory cause of separation exists.—We must presume that our readers are acquainted with Mr. Hume's essay on this curious and interesting topic; which certainly will not suffer in comparison with any thing contained in the book before us.

The Legitimation of Children born before marriage, by the subsequent union of their parents, is a subject which naturally attracts an Englishman's attention; since the memorable refusal of the Barons to admit it, when it was pressed on them by the ecclesiastical part of the council of Merton, is always mentioned as a glorious triumph of our ancestors over foreign innovations. The *Code Napoleon* provides that children born before matrimony may be legitimated by the subsequent marriage of their parents, if both parents acknowlege them before the ceremony or in the act of its celebration. It operates in respect to the descendants of such children, if the children die before the marriage; and it confers on the issue, thus legitimated, all the rights to which they would have been intitled if they had been born after the union.

Our attention was next caught by some pages in which a considerable discussion occurs respecting the law of Adoption.

We find traces of this practice in the Jewish and Grecian law, and a few faint vestiges of it in the early histories and codes of some of the German nations: but it never made a part of English law. In Roman jurisprudence, it formed an extensive and important article. It seems to have originated in the wish, so common to man at the close of life, of transmitting his property to a person of his own choice, and in some measure continuing his own existence. Among the Romans, it was sometimes practised for very fraudulent purposes, two of which are particularly mentioned by the writers on the civil law; 1st, By the antient law of Rome, the father of three children had many valuable privileges; and in order to obtain them, a Roman citizen, to whom nature refused children, acquired them by adoption; the law recognized the filiation; and the rights of parentage necessarily followed. 2dly, It sometimes happened that the patricians wished to fill offices which were open only to plebeians; and to obtain a qualification for them, they procured themselves to be adopted into a plebeian family; which act engrafted them on that family, and conferred on them its sacred and civil rights. This was one of Clodius's manœuvres in his attack on Cicero, —Such motives made the practice frequent among the Romans, but it was viewed with much jealousy: it was conceived that the public was so much interested in the adoption, that the measure was allowed to take place only at the *comitia curiata*; and as the adopted child was intitled to a participation of the sacred rights of the family into which he was received, it became a part of the pontifical law. After the ceremony of filiation was completed, the child was invested with all the rights and obligations of the natural and legitimate offspring of the parent by whom he was adopted: but these privileges were moderated by Justinian, who excluded the adopted child from all the obligations of a natural and legitimate child, and from all his rights, except that of succession in cases in which the parent died intestate.

From this short view of the history and law of Adoption, it does not appear to be a practice grounded either on the general feelings of human nature, or on any rational rules of artificial society; and as it was wholly unknown to the old French law, it is not altogether improbable that, if the Chief Consul had not entertained particular views of his own, it never would have made an article in the *Code Napoleon*. The discussion of it, however, in the volumes before us, is interesting. M. *Tronchet* observes that he has always been adverse to adoption, and assigns the reasons which determined his opinion:

'At first view, (says he,) Adoption flatters the imagination and the feelings: but, in fact, it is merely a fraud on those restraints which the law of France imposes on an unlimited power of the alienation of property; and it is therefore a real anomaly, and a deviation without reason from legal principles. It is an institution neither necessary nor useful; and it has no other effect than that of flattering the vanity of those who wish to perpetuate their name. The advantage supposed to result from it is the consolation which it seems to hold out to those who are not blessed with children, by affording them a semblance of paternity: but it never can be more than a faint and imperfect imitation of nature; and it must always be open to this objection, that it destroys the reciprocity of affection, on which the union was founded, by converting independence into duty.'

He then enumerates the evils resulting from adoption to individuals, and to society at large: observing that

'Persons united by adoption will too frequently experience mutual disappointment. The father will more often resort to it from hatred to his heirs, than from good will to the adopted; and thus he will prepare for himself a source of regret the more poignant, because it will be irremediable. Suppose a married couple to have no offspring, and to adopt a child that pleases them: one of the couple dies; the other marries again, and has a child; it is easily conceived how great will be the regret of the parent for having given a stranger-brother to his real offspring. The father will hate his adopted child, the adopted child will hate his brother, contention will arise, and the peace and harmony of the family will be wholly destroyed. Besides, if a person desire to do good to any child, it is not necessary for this purpose that he should adopt him; the law leaves enough of his property in his power, to enable him to effect all the good that he can reasonably wish to confer; and if he should wish to do more, it must be because he is instigated by the vanity of perpetuating his name, and of leaving to him who is to bear it a fortune that will enable the holder of it to represent him with *éclât*. Such vanity can be tolerated only in the most aristocratic states.—The lot of the adopted child will be equally insecure. If the adoption be irrevocable, the child will find himself bound by an engagement which he has not contracted, and to which perhaps he is repugnant; and if it be revocable, so that he can shake off the yoke when he comes of age, he must of necessity return to his original family. What will he then find in it, but want and wretchedness? for surely it is not intended that his return should have any retro-active effect on the division of fortune and other family arrangements, which shall have intermediately taken place.—With regard to the public, also, adoption must be attended with equal inconvenience. Should the affiliated child have no claims of right on the patrimony of the person who has adopted him, he becomes a kind of equivocal being, a monster in society; he is cut off from his natural family-connections, yet belongs not to the family into which he is adopted. Should he be admitted to all the rights of real children, then the legislator is unjust to the relations of the adopter, as he deprives his natural and real offspring of their legal rights: but, by the law of

France, it is not in the power of an individual to take from any citizen his right of succession.'

In reply, the First Consul says;

'The custom of adoption is so far from being of aristocratic origin, that it has principally prevailed in republics; and the modifications, with which it is now intended to be sanctioned, harmonize with the order of things long since established in France. With those modifications, it will be a mere transmission of names and patrimony; a species of transmission long in use, and which has never been accused of making the adopted child a monster in the social order of beings. It has been remarked that adoption serves no other purpose than that of gratifying vanity: but it confers more substantial advantages; it procures for old age a greater certainty of support and comfort than that which might be expected from collateral relatives; and it enables the merchant or the manufacturer, who is deprived of children, to create for himself an assistant and a successor. The power of disposing of his property does not, during the life of the testator, form any ties between him and the proposed object of his bounty. Motives more dignified than vanity may influence his conduct; affection, esteem, and sentiment, may lead him to the desire of contracting this alliance with a person whom he may consider as worthy of the favour. It effects no change in our morals; while it encourages youth, prepares good citizens for the state, and furnishes supplies for all professions. Much has been said on the probable regrets of the adopting parent: but regret is a possible consequence of all human transactions; we repent of sales, gifts, and marriages; yet sales, gifts, and marriages are among the ordinary occurrences of life, and are sanctioned and encouraged by law.—After all, if the parent should feel himself disappointed in the consequences which he expected from the adoption, he may confine the child to that portion of his property which the law assigns to him.—The only remaining argument against adoption is the injury done by it to collateral relatives: but this is not to be taken into account, because the interest of collaterals is of little moment in the eye of the law.'

From these discourses, (which we have considerably abridged), the reader will perceive the nature of the arguments used on each side of the question. The opinion of the Chief Consul prevails; and Adoption is received into the code, but under numerous regulations. The adopting parent must be of the age of 50, and be older by at least 15 years than the person whom he adopts. No child, nor any more remote issue of the adopter, must be alive at the time of the adoption; neither can the husband adopt without the consent of the wife, nor the wife without that of the husband; and, except where they both join in the adoption, no individual can be adopted by more than one person. The adopted must have been a continued object of the adopter's bounty and care for six years immediately

immediately preceding the adoption; unless the person adopted has saved his adopter's life, or has rescued him from imminent peril by water or fire. Adoption is not to take place during the adopter's minority; nor between that time and his attaining the age of 25 years, without the consent of both his parents, if both of them be alive, or that of the survivor, if either of them be dead. The adopted person is to remain in his own family: his family-rights and obligations are preserved to him; marriage between him and his adopting parents and their issue is forbidden; he acquires by adoption no right of succession to the property of the adopter's relatives: but, in respect to that of the adopter himself, he obtains, though the adopter should have afterward other children, all the rights of a child.

A tribunal of adoption is established; the members of which are required to decide whether all the conditions of the law in respect to this measure have been fulfilled, and whether the person proposed to be adopted has a good character. They must then pronounce whether there be or be not ground for the adoption. After a month's delay, their sentence is to be referred to the Tribunal of Appeal; and, if it be confirmed, it is to be inscribed in the public register of the place at which the adopted is domiciliated. The adoption is then complete.

Such is the actual law of Adoption in France;—and we join M. *Tronchet* in thinking that it is an anomalous and absurd provision. The restraints imposed on it are very numerous, and must make the instances of it rare. If it had formed a part of the old law, and the use of it had been frequent, we should have regarded the provision respecting it, in the *Code Napoleon*, as a legislative sacrifice to public opinion: but, as it was unknown in the antient law, we see no good reason for its introduction into the present code. Perhaps, however, as we have before intimated, something more was meant by it than was then intended to meet the public ear; and the provision was inserted in the code with the view of reconciling the nation to the adoptions which have since taken place in the Imperial family.

On the interesting subject of Imprisonment for Debt, (which as we are happy to observe, now begins to attract in a great degree the general attention of our countrymen,) we were rather sorry but not surprized to find no discussion. Creditors are always bound to accept the *cessio bonorum*, under the provision of the law; and the debtor is thus freed from liability to personal arrest, though he is not discharged from the debt.

The work contains very copious and interesting deoates on the propriety of giving children a legal right to any portion of the property of their parents;—on the effects of voluntary gifts

gifts in respect to creditors or purchasers;—on the recision of sales for inadequacy of price;—on the public registration of mortgages;—and on several other subjects which come home to an English lawyer:—but we have not time at present to furnish our readers with extracts from them.

This publication certainly abounds with curious matter, and must interest, in a high degree, all persons who are engaged in any speculations for the amelioration of national jurisprudence. That much in *our* jurisprudence requires emendation seems to be generally acknowleged: that this emendation is an arduous undertaking, and that the rash and the unskilled should be kept from it, are equally true: but that something should be done towards it by the prudent and the wise is desired by all to whom the delay, the expence, and the uncertainty of our present system of law are known.—Whenever it is seriously undertaken, it will certainly behove us to avail ourselves of the example and the experience of our neighbours.

We have seen on sale, but we have not been able to procure it, *l'Esprit du Code Napoleon*, a work in several volumes, highly commended in the *Moniteur*.

[*To be continued.*] But.

ART. II. *Géographie Physique de la Mer Noire*, &c.; *i. e.* The Physical Geography of the Black Sea, of the Interior of Africa, and of the Mediterranean; by A. DUREAU-DE-LAMALLE, jun. Accompanied by two Charts prepared by *J. N. Buache*, Member of the Institute of France and of the Board of Longitude, one of them representing the Changes that have taken place in the inland Seas; the other, the interior Parts of Africa, and the Routes pursued by the victorious Greeks and Romans, on their Expeditions. 8vo. pp. 400. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s.

THIS work derives interest not only from the researches which it contains, and from the comparisons which it draws, but also from the near coincidence which it establishes between all the opinions of antient historians and poets, on facts very imperfectly known and very badly interpreted. The labours of the author are moreover rendered valuable by furnishing proofs and fixing the epoch of the great changes, which the inland seas have undergone either by volcanoes or earthquakes, or by the accumulations of mud and sand formed near their mouth by the rivers that empty their waters into them. He seems to consider it as necessary only to view, on a geographical chart, the form of the Euxine or Black sea, the bearings of its coasts, and the figure of the canal of the Bosphorus, in order

order to believe that the communication between that sea and the Mediterranean did not originally exist, and that the globe has undergone a remarkable change in that place. He adduces many authorities to shew that the irruption of the Euxine, or the opening of this communication, may, by introducing chronology in support of history, be traced to a period not long antecedent to historic times; and that this great physical event occasioned wonderful changes on the coasts and boundaries of the Caspian sea, of the sea of Azof, of the Black sea, and of the Mediterranean: which he conceives to have been originally a lake, and not a sea separated from the Atlantic by a sort of isthmus or low neck of land, extending from Europe to Africa, till it was broken through by the ocean with the co-operation of some physical causes, and the passage was gradually washed and progressively formed into what are now called the Straits of Gibraltar.

M. DE LAMALLE gives a cursory view of the state of geographical knowlege in antient times, and in succeeding ages, down to the period at which Pliny, Arrian, and Ptolemy flourished. In the first place, he mentions the geography of Homer, and in support of its accuracy produces the respectable authorities of Polybius and Strabo. He then adverts briefly to that of Anaximander and Thales; after which he proceeds to the geography of Strabo and of Herodotus: the latter of whom, to the advantage of an extensive erudition, joined that of having actually seen the countries which he describes most in detail, namely Egypt, Scythia, Thrace, Persia, Assyria, Lydia, Syria, Palestine, &c. In following the geographical narratives of that faithful and correct historian, M. DE L. makes him express himself in the following words:

'I know the country occupied by the Persians, which extends even to the Erythrean sea. Above them, towards the north, live the Medes and the Sapires. Beyond the Sapires are the Colchidians, who border on the sea into which the Phasis empties itself. These four nations reach from one sea to the other. In going thence towards the west, are found two opposite peninsulæ, which border on the sea The one on the north commences at Phasis, and extends towards the sea along the Euxine, quite to the promontory of Sigeum, in the Troad. On the south, this peninsula begins at the Myriandric gulph adjacent to Phœnicia, and reaches to the promontory of Triopeum. It is inhabited by thirty different nations.—The other peninsula begins on the confines of Persia, and extends to the Erythrean sea; and along this sea it includes first Persia, and then Assyria and Arabia. It borders on the Arabian gulph at the place at which Darius had a canal opened to communicate with the Nile. From Persia to Phœnicia, the country is vast and extensive. From Phœnicia, the same peninsula runs along this very

very sea by Syria of Palestine, and Egypt, on which it bounds. It comprehends only three nations.

'The countries towards the east above the Persians, the Medes, the Sapires, and the Colchidians, are bounded on this side by the Erythrean sea (here the Persian gulph), and on the north by the Caspian sea and the Araxes, which takes its course towards the east.

'The greater part of Asia was discovered by Darius. This prince, wishing to know into what part of the sea the Indus threw itself, embarked in vessels men of veracity and confidence, and among others Scylax. They descended the river towards the east and the south; then, navigating towards the west, they arrived at length, on the thirtieth month after they had set out, at the very port at which the Phœnicians had formerly embarked by order of the King of Egypt to navigate round Lybia. After that circumnavigation was finished, Darius subdued the Indians, and made use of this sea. It was thus that it was discovered that Asia, except the oriental part of it, on the whole resembles Lybia.

'Lybia immediately succeeds Egypt, and makes part of the second peninsula, which is narrow on the confines of this province. In fact, from the Mediterranean to the Erythrean or Red sea, the distance is only about one thousand stadia: but from this narrow place the peninsula becomes spacious and more expanded, taking the name of Lybia.

'Lybia itself shews that it is surrounded by the sea, except on the side on which it borders on Asia. Nechos, king of Egypt, is the first, as far as we know, who proved this fact. When he had finished the excavation of the canal which was designed to convey the waters of the Nile to the Arabian gulph, he made Phœnicians set out in ships, with orders to enter on their return by the pillars of Hercules into the northern sea, and to come back that way to Egypt. The Phœnicians, having embarked on the Red sea, sailed into the southern ocean; and, after a navigation of two years, they doubled the pillars of Hercules, and returned into Egypt. They mentioned, on their arrival, that, in sailing round Lybia, they had observed the sun on their right; and thus for the first time Lybia became known.'

In the tenth chapter, the writer speaks of the courses of the Nile and the Niger, giving Herodotus's account of the mode of navigating the upper part of the former by means of batteaux; which is very similar to the method now employed for carrying batteaux up the rapids of the river St. Laurence, from Montreal to Lake Ontario. He observes that Mr. Bruce could not be correctly acquainted with its course, because, in returning from Abyssinia, he followed it from Halfaia only to Gous, where he quitted that river in order to set out for Syene by the desert of Nubia.—In the two following chapters, M. DE LAMALLE gives an account of the expeditions of the Ethiopians, of Alexander, of Ptolemy Philadelphus, and Ptolemy Evergetes; and in the thirteenth he produces various authorities, to shew that the Nile and the Niger are but branches of the same

same river. He then takes notice of the expedition of the consul Suetonius Paulinus, of the sources of information which Pliny received from the Carthaginians respecting the interior parts of Africa, and of the expedition of Cornelius Balbus.

One great object of the author is to make it appear that the antients were much better acquainted with the interior parts of Africa than modern geographers are, who have not even availed themselves of the lights thrown on the subject in the writings of the former. After having adverted to the lakes and mountains in this portion of the globe, and treated at some length of the sources of the Nile, he draws the following inferences, which we are inclined to consider as for the most part just and well founded:

1st. That the antients had a much more exact knowlege than we have of the interior of Africa, where their colonies are found beyond the Niger as well as towards the sources of the Nile, and into which they had sent armies westward to the 8th degree of northern latitude, and easthward to the 8th degree of southern latitude.

2d. That almost all the antient names of the people, who submitted in the two great expeditions of Cornelius Balbus and Ptolemy Evergetes, are found in the modern names with great exactness.

3d. That there exists a lake of salt water, or inland sea, which extends very far to the southward of the equator; and that this lake, known by the Greeks under the name of Kerne, and by us under that of Zambré, has a much greater extent towards the north than it is represented to have in our charts.

4th. That the Grecian, Arabian, and Portuguese travellers agree in placing under the equator the highest mountains of Africa, which they compare to those of Caucasus and Imaus, the most elevated chains in Asia.

5th. That the accounts of the same travellers, antient and modern, combine in fixing under the equator, in the midst of these grand Ethiopian chains of mountains, the true sources of the Nile, which they have lately carried back, or traced to 8° north of the Line.

6th. That the facts collected by the Greeks, the Carthaginians, and the Romans, in their expeditions, and those which have been transmitted to Arabian geographers and to our latest travellers in the interior parts of Africa, establish the certainty of a communication between the Nile and the Niger by means of Bahr-el-Azrak and Misselad, and the lakes Caonga and d'Ouangarah; presenting, in the rainy seasons, an inland navigation of more than two thousand leagues in length, in the middle of this vast continent.

After having referred to the geography of Eratosthenes, and the sources from which he drew his information, together with the geological geography of Straton and Xanthus, the author gives the opinion of Strabo respecting the irruption of the Euxine or Black sea into the Mediterranean. He then speaks of the antient limits of the inland seas of Azof, the Euxine, and the Caspian. On the first of his two charts, he represents that of Azof, as having, in the time of Herodotus, extended almost to the Caspian; and as having been in the second century of the Christian era at least four times as large as it is now. Every modern map of it certainly exhibits it as greatly short of the extent and limits assigned to it by Polybius.

In this volume we are furnished with a large portion of physical and geological geography; and it proves, beyond contradiction, that the writings of the antients have been but too little searched by modern geographers, for information respecting the interior parts of Africa. The many curious facts and circumstances stated in it, as drawn from these store-houses of antiquity, render the perusal of it not only interesting but entertaining: but, as it is impossible for us to advert to every part of it, we shall content ourselves with laying before our readers the author's own brief conclusion:

'After the facts which I have just been establishing, relative to the formation of the Thracian Bosphorus and the Strait of Gibraltar, it seems to me that the antient histories and traditions about partial deluges, and the numerous vestiges of these inundations observed by naturalists on the coasts of our interior seas, may be naturally explained by admitting that the ocean, of which the level was more elevated, in forcing itself into the Mediterranean, (which, separated from the Black sea, was then only a lake of moderate extent, formed by the waters of the Nile, the Rhone, the Po, and several other less considerable rivers,) inundated part of the low and sandy coasts of Spain and Barbary, of the plains of Provence and Languedoc, and of the marshy regions of Egypt and Asia Minor, where it has penetrated even to the base of the hills and mountains.

'This will perhaps be considered as one of the deluges anterior to Deucalion.

'From this epoch, the Mediterranean, in consequence of the extent of its basin, losing infinitely more by evaporation than it receives by its rivers and the strait of Gibraltar, then very narrow, will have been diminished in its extent; and the currents and materials, washed down by its rivers, will have carried extensive plains forwards into its bosom.

'In fine, when by the volcanic eruption of the Cyaneæ or Pavonariæ isles, (in the canal of Constantinople,) the canal of the Bosphorus and the neighbouring plains had opened a passage to the Euxine united to the Aral, to the Caspian, and to the Palus Meotus,

tus, then almost as extensive as the Mediterranean is in our days,—these low plains, these lands of new formation, were for some time partly covered by the waters: but the equilibrium soon returned in this basin, which could disgorge itself into the strait of Gibraltar; the Mediterranean, augmented by tribute from ten of the largest rivers in the north of Europe, has since that time been less diminished by evaporation; and its coasts have not experienced remarkable changes, except in low sunken places, and in the environs of its great rivers.'

We are sorry that we have not present opportunity for a more detailed analysis of this publication, which will much interest the inquirer into antient geography.

Glen.

ART. III. *Tableau Historique*, &c.; *i.e.* An Historical, Statistical, and Moral Picture of Upper Italy, and of the Alps which surround it; to which is prefixed a comparative View of the Characters of the Emperors, Kings, and other Princes who have reigned in Lombardy, from Bellovesus and Cæsar to Napoleon the First. By CH. DENINA, Librarian to His Imperial and Royal Majesty. 8vo. pp. 412. Paris.—Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

ACCORDING to our sublime Bard,

> "They err who count it glorious to subdue
> By conquest far and wide, to over-run
> Large countries, and in field great battles win,
> Great cities by assault:" MILTON, *Paradise Regained.*

but the generality of writers, both in verse and in prose, are so profuse in their adulation of conquerors, that the solitary protest even of the great Milton will not be much regarded. The recent subduer and plunderer of Italy is exalted by M. DENINA above all its antient or modern invaders and masters; and the Cæsars, Justinians, and Charlemagnes, are represented as shining with faint lustre, compared with the star which now rules the ascendant, yclept Napoleon the first. Of those regions which he has appropriated to himself, geographers and statistical writers hasten to furnish descriptions; and are eager by their details to make us acquainted with the demarcations and *arrondissemens* which his sword has drawn. It is probable, also, that policy unites with vanity in recommending the execution of works of this nature; the conqueror being solicitous of ascertaining the value of his acquisitions, and of collecting those facts respecting the population and riches of his Italian dominions, which are necessary for the purposes of internal regulation, taxation, and conscription.

Upper

Upper Italy, the subject of the present work, is described by M. DENINA in 20 sections, including an account of Piedmont, properly so called, forming at present the Department of the Po, and the 27th military division of the French Empire;—of the provinces which constitute the departnment of the Stura;—of the Maritime Alps;—of the department of Tanaro;—of the provinces and districts which constitute the Department of Marengo;—of the countries on the right bank of the Tesin, including many provinces of the *ci-devant* Piedmont;—of the Departments of the Sesia, and the Doire;—of the eastern and western side of the Alps;—of the Departments of Mont-Blanc and of Lake Leman;—of Austrian Lombardy;—of the two *ci-devant* Venetian provinces, now called the Departments of the Seiro and the Mella;—of Modena and Ferrara;—of the legations of Bologna and Romagnia, now two Departments of the kingdom of Italy;—of the states of Parma;—of Eastern Liguria;—of the countries situated between Liguria and the kingdom of Etruria;—and of the parts of Italy formerly belonging to the House of Austria. Interspersed, will be found reflections on the character of the different people who are amalgamated by the recent revolutions on the continent, and annexed at the command of the conqueror to the overgrown French Empire.

It will be impossible for us even to glance at all the various particulars which are detailed under this statistical survey, or to recount the circumstances descriptive of each department under the heads of history, soil, climate, natural productions, industry, modes of life, character, population, &c: but we shall endeavour to select, from different parts of the work, such specimens as will enable our readers to form some idea of the nature of its execution, and will at the same time convey to them some information and amusement.

The department of the Po, of which Turin is the capital, is stated to contain a population of 429,000.—In the second section, *Coni*, the capital of the department of the Stura, is thus described:

'*Coni*, in Italian *Cuneo*, from the Latin word *Cuneus*, is built on a piece of ground in the shape of a wedge, naturally formed by the confluence of the two rivers Gesso and Stura. This new town, which sprang from an antient city called *Pedona*, owes its origin to certain emigrants from Caraglio and other places in its vicinity, who sought to deliver themselves from the tyranny of their lords. As it seemed adapted by its position to be made a fortified place, it became an object of cupidity to the neighbouring princes and republics; at one time to the Marquisses of Saluce, at another to the Counts of Provence, then to the republic of Asti, and afterward to the Counts and Dukes of Savoy, under whose dominion it has continued since 1416.

Erected

Erected into a city, and become the seat of government of four other cities, forty-six towns, and more than forty villages or parishes dependant on them, and containing within itself twenty thousand inhabitants, Coni might reckon in its *arrondissement*, 140,000 souls. Being situated on the only pass from Provence to Piedmont, this is a place of commerce as well as a strong fortification; and it has, at different epochs, successfully sustained six sieges.'

The value of the county of Nice, in the eye of a statistical observer, is estimated in a few lines:

'The air of Nice, and of the country round, is the most healthy and temperate of any in Europe. The soil is fertile, but only in productions which are of secondary necessity, viz. wine, oil, pulse, lemons, and oranges; it is deficient in grain and pasturage, and is forced to draw its provisions, poultry, eggs, and milk from Piedmont, and its corn from Africa, Sardinia, or Sicily. Mulberry-trees are raised for silk worms; and for these the people in many places neglect the culture of the olive, which is more adapted to the country, and more certain in its ultimate produce, though not so promising for the moment. The county of Nice, including the district of Sospello, in 1795 reckoned a population of 61,963 inhabitants, who were lively, active, shrewd, and industrious.'

After having informed us that different vallies of the Alps are celebrated for workmen belonging to various trades and professions, the author adds that 'Nice and Sospello are famous for sending out schoolmasters, or persons suited to those professions which require (or are supposed to require) some sort of literature, as lawyers, magistrates, counsellors, priests, and monks.'—'Yet,' says he, 'it is a remarkable trait in the Niceans, that they are not a sea-faring people and do not make good sailors; the difference between them and the Genoese, and other inhabitants of Liguria, is very striking in this respect.'

Speaking of the Genoese, M. DENINA quotes Exod. 28. 19. as a presumptive evidence of the very early commerce of this people with the East. He supposes that this intercourse subsisted, if not in the time of Moses, at least before the Pentateuch was translated into Greek, since the LXX call yellow amber λιγυριον, whence the *ligurius* of the Vulgate and the *ligure* of our English version: but the Hebrew word לשם bears no resemblance to the word *liguria*, so that the original does not support the inference here attempted to be adduced. The passage in Pliny, to which the author refers, (lib. 37. cap. 8.) proves only the great ignorance of this antient writer respecting the natural history of amber, and by no means establishes the fact that it derived its name from the country of Liguria; for, though the naturalist observes in

one part of this chapter, "*Theophrastus in Liguria effodi dixit,*" a few lines afterward he adds, "*Demostratus lyncurion id vocat, et fieri ex urina lyncum bestiarum.*"

Anecdotes are here recited from classic authors in illustration of the industry, perseverance, commercial enterprize, and cunning of the antient Ligurians; and of the modern Genoese it is observed that

'Economy, in the full extent of the term, seems to constitute the basis of their character. For the words *agio* and *lotto*, many inventions of finance, and a number of Italian mercantile terms, which have remained unchanged in other languages, we are more indebted to Genoa than to all the other cities of Italy.

'The form of their government appears to have been always republican. It is remarkable that, in all the details of the wars of Liguria, during the times of the Romans, the name of not a single Ligurian king, prince, or commander in chief occurs; a strong proof of the equality of condition which prevailed among this people. All the history of the middle ages, as well as that of more recent periods, exhibits the inhabitants of the region formerly known by the name of Liguria as more inclined to independence, to a republican government, and to insurrections, than any of their neighbours.

'Their wars, their commerce, their asperity, and the sterility of the soil which obliged them to incessant labour, prevented them for a long period from cultivating the fine arts, or from devoting themselves to literature. From the time of the Scipios, when the Romans first began to acquire a taste for study, the Ligurians, who had just fallen under their yoke, were treated as an ignorant people. The history also of the 4th, 5th and 6th ages of Roman literature, from Terence to Cassiodorus, presents us with only a single Ligurian, viz. Pedo Albinovanus*, to whom Horace addresses one of his Epistles. (Lib. 1. ep. 8.) Besides, this Albinovanus, who can be regarded as little more than an admirer or at most as a servile imitator, came (as some report) from Albinga, a town near Provence. It was moreover from this part of the state of Genoa, rather than from Genoa itself, and on its eastern coast, *(dans la rivière de Levante)* that in the subsequent ages we find authors, artists, and petty princes, who were protectors and admirers of letters and the arts. No doubt, Genoa has been fruitful in men of talents: but the spirit of the government, which naturally retains much of the primitive character of the nation, has not shewn itself favourable to the arts and sciences. The numerous authors who occur in the *Bibliotheca Ligustica* of *Oldoin* are monks, and the literary establishments of this city owe their origin to the religious orders. Now we very well know that monks, brought up and educated in other countries than those which gave them birth, contract other views and are formed to a different character

* See an account of the poems of Pedo, M. Rev. Vol. 54. N.S. p. 321.

from

from those of their countrymen. It is very certain that the majority of celebrated men, whom Genoa boasts of having produced, were not indebted for their success to the encouragement which they received from their own country. The two brothers of Columbus found it in Spain, Augustin Justiniani at Rome and in France, and we know too well how James Bonfadius, the only man of letters who was invited by the republic to Genoa, terminated his days. In conclusion, however, we must confess that the Genoese have always evinced an energetic character; and that, whenever they have had an opportunity of displaying their talents, they have constantly distinguished themselves. Three or four Genoese or Ligurian popes, Innocent IV, Nicholas V, Sixtus IV, and Julius II, have established remarkable epochs in the history of the church and of the empire; and we must add that they afford a favourable idea of the Ligurian character, but not properly of that of the Genoese.'

This picture of the Genoese, in a work printed at Paris, does not manifest a desire on the part of the French to flatter their new subjects; and we should think that the Ligurian republican will not feel any strong predilection for his new connections, after such an account of his fellow citizens.

It is stated at the end of the 4th section that the three provinces of Alba, Acqui, or Upper Montferrat (*Mons ferax*,) and Casal, contained in 1795 a population of nearly 300,000.

In the enumeration of the districts which are assigned to the formation of a department, intended to bear the name of the place in which *Bonaparte* obtained his great victory in Italy, we meet with this notice:

'*Marengo*, more celebrated at the present day than was ever the promontory of Actium, was before 1800 the most dull and obscure village of the districts belonging to Alessandria. The name seems to indicate that it was built on a marshy soil, with stagnant water, in spite of its two little brooks. It may, no doubt, become a beautiful city, which, without equalling Alessandria in grandeur and importance, will have the honour of giving name to a noble province.'

The loss sustained by the king of Sardinia, in consequence of the revolutionary war, may be ascertained by a perusal of these pages. M. DENINA represents his possessions on the *terra firma*, including Piedmont and Savoy, to have been equal, in 1792, to a tenth part of France and to an eighth part of all Italy; these provinces being found to extend two hundred and ten Italian miles in length and 300 in breadth, to contain a surface of 1260 * square miles, and a population of 2,200,000 inhabitants, who paid a revenue to the sovereign of from twenty to twenty five millions of Piedmontese livres,

* So says the book, but the number should be 63,000; or about 37,000 *English* square miles.

nearly equal to 30,000,000 of French livres, (p. 210.) A statement somewhat different is given in the notes, p. 400.

With reference to the productions of Piedmont, the author informs us that

'This country yields all the kinds of vegetables which are to be found beyond the Alps, without excepting any one species of plants. It is well known that Piedmont exports both corn and rice; and it might export much wine, if the carriage from Montferrat were more easy and less expensive. Oneglia and Nice might supply the other provinces with quantities of good oil, oranges, lemons, and limes. Fruits of all sorts, such as apples, pears, peaches, and plumbs, are every where in great abundance. Figs, mushrooms, and black and white truffles, are even important objects of commerce. Chesnuts, which are served up with the desart at the tables of the rich, are, during a full third of the year, the chief nourishment of several cantons; while in others Indian corn or maize is particularly useful. Cattle and fowls are plentiful, and of good quality.

'Large fish are rare in Upper Piedmont, but in general the inhabitants are here better supplied with this article than those of the countries which border on the Appenines. The vallies of the Po, of Vraita, of Lucerne, and of Susa, furnish excellent trout; and the Lago Majore and the Tessino afford different kinds of other aquatic animals. The Sturgeon, which rarely ascends so high up the Po as Turin, is often caught at Valenza and Casal. In other cantons, tench, lampreys, and eels abound: but game does not constitute an article of subsistence. The large game, reserved by the princes for the pleasure of hunting, was rather a scourge than a benefit, in consequence of the ravages committed by the deer in the fields: but the hare, though doing some damage, made ample recompence by its flesh and its skin. Pheasants are rare: but partridges are sufficiently abundant; and in some places, as in the valley of Aoste, they are better than in any other country.

'The materials which serve for clothing are of different kinds and qualities. The wool of Piedmont, known from the time of the Romans to be rather coarse, will not bear a comparison with that of the south of Italy; nor with that of Provence, Languedoc, and most of the provinces of France. It is, however, possible that the breed which has been introduced into the *arrondissement* of Civas, in the department of the Doire, will in future yield fleeces of a better quality. The soil of Piedmont is either too rich or too gravelly for the growth of flax, the finest sort of which is raised in sandy ground. On the other hand, hemp is produced in such abundance, that, in addition to the home consumption, considerable quantities for cordage are sent to the ports of the Mediterranean. Moreover, the little portion of silk which they spin in the villages at the foot of the Alps, while in various ways it supplies the place of wool and flax, is no impediment to the commerce of this article, which is exchanged by the Piedmontese for a variety of luxuries that use has rendered indispensable, such as sugar, coffee, and spices.

'This

'This country, sufficiently rich in vegetable and animal productions, does not equally afford the objects of the mineral kingdom, though few things are wanting for ordinary purposes. If the quarries of Biellois, of the valleys of Lanz, of Pont, of Locane, and of Aoste, yield but little gold and silver, they furnish an abundance of copper. Tin and lead are not *desiderata*, nor have the people any occasion for the importation of foreign iron.

'The genius and character of the Piedmontese hold, like their language, a middle station between those of the Italian and the French: but this is not altogether the case in every province. One of these differs from another, as is observable between the several provinces of France.'

After this sketch of the natural productions, &c. of Piedmont, we are presented with an account of its political constitution and form of government, of its magistrates and legislation, of its court, religious worship and ecclesiastical government, and of the state of letters and the arts at the conclusion of the last century: but these details occupy too many pages to allow us to include them in our extracts.

Of the capital of Austrian Lombardy, the author furnishes both the antient and the modern history:

'Though, (says he,) *Milan* be not the most antient of the cities of Upper Italy, it is that of which the origin is most known. Its founder was the famous Bellovesus, cotemporary with Tarquin, the 5th king of Rome, about the year 620 before the Christian æra. It was at that time, as Strabo tells us, only a village, but it very soon became the capital of the country of the Insubres, who till then had resided in hamlets and open villages. The Romans, under the consuls M. Claudius and Cn. Marcellus, after having defeated the Gauls in several battles, took possession of it: but, since no mention is made of it in the minute accounts of Hannibal's expedition, it could not have been a place of any great strength or importance. Cæsar, who must have often passed through it, in going from Cisalpine and Transpadane into Transalpine Gaul, does not once name Milan; and even during the civil wars of Cæsar and of the Triumvirs who succeeded him, we do not find that any of the divers parties were forced to occupy it, as they were obliged to do with respect to Modena and other Italian cities. It was not till towards the end of the third century, when some of the successors of Augustus resided there with their court, that the city of Milan began to be considered as rivalling the capital of the Empire. The kings of the Goths and the Lombards do not seem to have given it the preference over Pavia, Asti, or Turin: but, after the revival of the Western Empire, it grew to such consequence as to be regarded as the principal city of Italy, equal at least to the Rome of that day. The facility with which it recovered itself, after the disasters that it suffered under the emperor Frederic I. is a sufficient proof of the greatness of its resources. Becoming since a formidable republic, under the presidency of its archbishops, it prospered internally, and extended its dominion over the neighbouring

bouring districts. Otho Visconti, created archbishop in 1261, and Matthew, his nephew, a good soldier for the time, and as good a politician as his uncle, seized the government, and transmitted it to their posterity, without taking any other title than that of Lords of Milan: but John Galias, the younger son of the nephew of the archbishop Otho, (or, to speak in plain English, Otho's younger grandson,) got himself created Duke by the Emperor Winceslaus.

'Milan was now one of the three principal cities of Europe, having the same rank with Prague and Paris, capitals of two kingdoms, which were not more considerable than the country possessed by the first Duke Visconti. This powerful state, being badly conducted, was divided under the sons and grandsons of John Galias. Under the fourth Duke, Philip Maria, it was re-united: but the Venetians took some portions of it; and in order to preserve the great body, it was forced to cede the province or seignory of Verceil to the Duke of Savoy, Amadeus VIII; while Francis Sforza, who had espoused the natural and only daughter of Philip Maria, on the death of his father-in-law, seized on the capital of the state and on several dependent cities. Setting aside, however, the consideration that he ought to have given up some of them, he left a perpetual subject of contest among the different claimants to the succession of Philip Maria, one of whose sisters had been married to Charles, Duke of Orleans. By this title, Louis XII., king of France, and after him Francis I, considered themselves as masters of the Milanese. Ludovicus Sforza, surnamed the Moor, who had robbed his nephew of it, being betrayed by the Swiss, was conducted a prisoner into France, where he died.

'The Emperor Charles V. having driven out the French, united, for a short space of time, this grand fief to the Germanic Empire, and afterward invested with it his son Philip II. By this step, more than the half of Lombardy passed under the dominion of Spain, and hence many wars in Italy arose during the seventeenth century, in which the French made various efforts to expel the Spaniards: who did not, however, lose the possession of this territory till the death of Charles II. the last king of Spain of the Austrian branch. The great war of the succession restored to the Imperial House of Austria those rich and beautiful countries, which have always borne the name of the Duchy of Milan: but, under the reign of Louis XV, they were twice in danger of falling into the hands of the French; and in order to preserve the principal part, different districts were ceded to Charles Emanuel III. who had besides sufficient title to obtain the whole, as being the descendant of Catherine of Austria, daughter of Philip II. By the dismemberment which the Duchy had suffered, the capital lost at least one third of the population which it possessed under the governments of Spain and Austria, but without parting with any of its grandeur, riches, or magnificence.'

In the subsequent delineation of the character of the inhabitants, the Milanese are said to have acquired such a reputation for

for being great eaters, that their gluttony is become proverbial.

Appended to the account given in the body of the work, is a long note, which represents the history of this city as including the most important part of the history of Italy, from the foundation to the decline of Rome. The etymology of *Milan* is also attempted; and we are informed that the derivation from the Latin words *medio* and *amnes*, (*in the midst of rivers*,) though not quite exact, approaches near the truth; for the name is composed of *medio*, and, not *amnes*, but *lane* or *hlan*, which some people pronounce *klane*, and signifies *water*, *source of water*, a *stream* or *brook*. We shall not interfere with this etymology, any otherwise than by remarking that, as one half of the word has a Latin origin, the other half might have been allowed to have the same source, since little seems to be gained by the substitution.

The *ci-devant* Venetian provinces are now formed into the two departments of the Serio and the Mella. Modena and Ferrara are divided into the departments of Crostolo, Reggio, and Massa-Carrara, and of that of the Panaro, the lower Po, Modena, Ferrara, and Comachio. The legations of Bologna and Romagnia now form the departments of the Reno and the Rubicon; and, in the recapitulation of the provinces which constitute the Kingdom of Italy, its population is stated at 3,552,555.

Many curious particulars are detailed in the remainder of this volume, respecting Placenza and Parma, Padua and the Italian part of the Tyrol, the republic of Genoa, and the origin, grandeur, and end of the republic of Venice: but we must restrict ourselves to one more extract, relative to the last mentioned fallen republic, which *Bonaparte* has *cut and carved* at his pleasure.

'At the epoch of the revolution which the French effected there in 1797, the states of the republic of Venice contained about 3,500,000 individuals, besides the inhabitants of the isles which the Turks had not invaded. By the dismemberment of the provinces which *Bonaparte* gave to the Cisalpine Republic, the great portion ceded to Austria reckoned in it a population of nearly 2,000,000, or 1,900,000, which amounted, with a little difference, to that which the Milanese together with Mantua then counted; so that in this respect the exchange was equitable, as it was also in point of the revenues and natural growth of the two countries. In grain, fruits, and wine, the product is the same: while the silks of Trevisan, of Friuli, and of some cantons of Padua, counterbalance those which the Milanese, without Brescia and Bergamo, could collect in the environs of Brianza and of Varese, and in the valleys of Corno. The rich pastures of Lodesan give some advantage

the Milanese over the Venetians: but the forests of Friuli, and those which are distinguished by the name of the *Bosco de' Remi di San Marco*, are a full equivalent for the duties of the exportation of corn. Austria thus acquires a powerful means of creating a respectable marine, and of forming a sort of balance between the maritime states, at least in the Mediterranean.'

This concern for the maritime strength of Austria does not seem to have been manifested by *Bonaparte* in his subsequent arrangements; since, by appropriating to himself Istria and part of Dalmatia, in which the finest ship-timber in the world abounds, as well as by having resumed the sovereignty of Venice and the Venetian states, he cannot be said to have encouraged the Emperor of Austria to turn his attention to the formation of a navy: though he has left him the sea-port of Trieste, at the top of the Adriatic.

In the conclusion of his work, M. DENINA laments that the materials of which it is composed are not completely arranged, and that some errors of the press deform his pages: but on the whole it evinces his industry and knowlege, and will be advantageously consulted by those who are compiling geographical and historical delineations of this portion of Europe.

Mon.

ART. IV. *Essai sur les Traces*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay on the Traces of Antiquity which remain in the Character of the modern Italians, Sicilians, Sardinians, and Corsicans; followed by a summary view of the "Historical, Statistical, and Moral Picture of Upper Italy." By Charles DENINA. 8vo. pp. 200. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 4s. sewed.

THIS volume is intended as a kind of supplement to that which we have noticed in the preceding article, and contains many particulars that would be in vain sought in the *Tableau*, &c. but yet are very necessary in order to estimate the amount of *Bonaparte's* Italian acquisitions. The retrospect on antient character, which is given in the introductory chapters, presents an amusing subject for speculation; especially to those who wish to combine morals with politics, in their inquiries into the state and condition of social man.

It is well known that traits of countenance and of character distinguish the people of one country from those of another; and that these traits are propagated from age to age, in spite of the political changes and revolutions to which all quarters of the globe are subject. Soil and climate have been supposed to operate with great steadiness and effect in the formation of those qualities which discriminate the inhabitants of particular regions: but the case of the Jews

serves to shew that national character results from other sources; while, *è contra*, the loss of the Roman breed among ourselves and the other nations of the North may be adduced, to prove that the operation of natural causes will ultimately obliterate impressions made by conquest and similar operations. M. DENINA contrasts antient with modern Italy, and endeavours to demonstate that a sameness of mind and of intellectual character is displayed by the former and the present inhabitants of the different districts of this beautiful peninsula; and he is forced, in order to explain his hypothesis, to assume in some measure the doctrine of the influence of soil and atmosphere on our habitudes and manners. This position must to a certain degree be true, though not in the extent to which he labours to carry it: but whether we assume or controvert the principle, the facts which are here advanced are too curious to be slightly discarded; and by the people, whom they more immediately concern, they will be examined with peculiar interest.

For the purpose of illustrating his proposition that, 'if in different places we find certain traits which distinguish one nation from another, we remark also much resemblance between the character of the antient people and that of those who have descended from them, or have replaced them on the same soil,' M. DENINA first takes a view of the lower part of Italy, formerly called *Magna Græcia* and Campania, and in more modern times Calabria and the provinces of the kingdom of Naples. We are desired to recollect that antient history and tradition represent the people of Brutium, Tarentum, and Sybaris, and the other inhabitants of this side of the peninsula, as more inclined to the sciences, to the arts, and to commerce, than to war; that we never find them associated with the Samnites in the long contests which they sustained with the Romans; and that even when the Tarentines were menaced with the fate of their neighbours, they took into their pay foreign troops, which were commanded by Pyrrhus king of Epirus. The fame of *Magna Græcia* for literature, science, and the arts is very great: but the compliment is carried a little too far when that country is exalted above antient Attica and Ionia, and when it is asserted as probable that the Iliad and Odyssey were composed in one of its colleges. By the list of celebrated writers and artists which this region has produced, and the reputation which it has maintained in later times, M. DENINA has amply sung its praise.

The character of the antient Roman is attempted *ad vivum* in the account of Latium, which was a country less devoted to refinement

refinement and luxury than Campania, Lucania, and Apulia:

'Accustomed as we are, from our infancy, to hear of and to admire the works which Rome has transmitted to us, we shall be surprised at finding that the country of Latium was less fruitful in men of genius than three or four other provinces of Italy. It was not, however, on the score of letters and the arts that Rome became illustrious; and we are forced to confess that the essential character of its people was that of ferocity. *Latium ferox*, (Hor. Lib. I. Od. 36.) this was the epithet which, under the mild reign of Augustus, a poet of the court conferred on the nation at large and the birth-place of the prince. The whole current of Roman history, from Romulus to Constantine, is indicative of the primitive character of the Romans and the people of Latium. Under the word *ferox* are indeed comprehended some laudable qualities, such as courage and bravery, but it particularly includes the ideas of fierceness, haughtiness, and a love of dominion and cruelty. All the exploits, remarkable events, antient laws, and customs of the Roman people, as well as the actions of their illustrious men, are tinctured with this ferocity. The foundation of Rome by the leader of a gang of banditti, the death of its first king and the expulsion of the last, the consulate of Junius Brutus, the war of the Volsci, the life of Camillus, of Coriolanus, of the two Catos, of Scipio, of Marius, and Sylla, the conspiracy of Catiline, the death of Cæsar, the patriotism of Decius, Regulus, and Torquatus, the severity of Manlius, who caused his own son to be beheaded, the power which the law gave to parents over the life of their children, the taste of the people for the bloody spectacle of contending gladiators and wild beasts, all these facts impress the idea of a proud, haughty, and imperious character; and all these words are synonimous with *ferocity* in its true and proper acceptation. No people of Greece, probably with the exception of Thebes, have displayed a similar character. The fierce Spartans were less ferocious than the Romans, and the Athenians had no title to this character.

'The Roman people were very slow in polishing themselves, and manifested equal tardiness in their taste for letters and the polite arts. They preserved the traces of their rusticity even to the reign of Augustus, (*hodièque manent vestigia ruris*, Hor. l. 2. ep. 1.) so illustrious for the progress which it made in those arts which contribute to civilization. Never did the people of Latium reach that degree of elegance which, in spite of themselves, they admired among the Greeks. Rome can count 600 years of literature, from the age of Cato the Censor and of Scipio Africanus to the removal of the seat of empire to Constantinople, and even to the invasion of the Barbarians; for after the reign of Constantine, Rome continued to be literary, notwithstanding the decline and corruption of taste. Yet of all the then known parts of Europe, the country of Latium is that which has produced the fewest great writers and celebrated artists. It is in the picture of Latin compared with that of Grecian literature, and particularly in the true character of Latin writers, that we dis-

cover the above-mentioned discriminating features of this nation. The country of Athens, or of Attica, which in the height of its glory was not half the size of Latium, and did not include perhaps a quarter of the population which Rome itself contained under the first Emperors, could boast in its little circle the flourishing state of the arts, in consequence of the talents and application of its inhabitants; for from Themistocles to Demetrius Phalereus, all the great writers who have thrown lustre on Grecian literature,—Sophocles, Thucydides, Aristophanes, Plato, Xenophon, Epicurus, Demosthenes, many other poets, and all the philosophers and orators,—were Athenians, or at least natives of Attica. Latium, which, taken in its utmost extent, includes also the country of the Volsci, has produced only two men of superior genius, Cicero the orator and Ovid the poet: but Arpinum, the native place of the first, and Sulmo, that of the second, more properly appertain to Campania than to Latium.'

Having by these and other remarks endeavoured to deprive the victorious Romans of their reputation for letters, M. DENINA changes the scene to modern Rome, and in like manner strips it of its borrowed plumes:

'Undoubtedly (says he,) the difference is extreme between the military government of the former under the Scipios and the Cæsars, and that of the latter conducted by priests; yet in spite of this we shall discover many traits of resemblance between antient and modern Rome. If we examine the history of the Emperors, we shall there perceive that none of those who have succeeded to the family of Cæsar, and whose administration and exploits merit the praise of posterity, were raised to the Empire by birth.

'Vespatian, Trajan, Adrian, the Antonines, Constantine, and after him Theodosius, arrived at the Purple by their merit. Among the sovereign pontiffs who have been the most renowned and revered, on account of what they have effected both for the civil state and for the church, we cannot name a single Roman, excepting Paul III.; and Paul III., like all the other popes and the powerful cardinals of Roman extraction, was less remarkable for literary qualities than for political genius. Some of them were distinguished by a sort of martial ferocity. If the antient Romans held political talents in high estimation, have not their successors been equally solicitous to acquire it? During how many ages have the ministers of the court of Rome pretended, that to them exclusively belonged the government of the whole world? It is true that these times are passed; and on the other side we must add that Rome, at all periods, has been the common country of people of merit, where all Christians might aspire to supreme authority, whatever was their condition, their nation, or their birth: in like manner as all the subjects of the Roman state, in the days of the Emperors, might attain the imperial dignity.

'The destiny of Rome has twice influenced the fate of the universe, and twice has it dictated the law to Europe. The decrees of the emperors and those of the popes, the compilations of the jurists and those of the canonists devoted to the popes, have equally served for a

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text in the schools of the civilian, and for a rule in Christian tribunals. Thus, if we proceed to the sciences and arts which have been most particularly cultivated in Rome at different epochs, we shall perceive that the Romans have prosecuted, with singular ardor and assiduity, those sciences and arts which were most naturally connected with the spirit of domination.'

The parallel is continued through many pages; and even the Roman genius for architecture is regarded as connecting itself with their prominent feature,—the love of empire: but if this be the ruling passion of modern Romans, what mortification must the present condition of Italy inflict on their minds?

We know too little of the antient Sabines to contrast their prevailing customs and manners with those of the existing inhabitants of Urbino: but M. DENINA pronounces that they were wise and virtuous, and a better race than their conquerors; and he discovers among their modern successors, individuals not unworthy of their ancestors.

Of the people of Etruria, or Tuscany, it is remarked that, coming as it is supposed originally from Tyre or Egypt, they cherished that passion for religious rites and ceremonies which was so prevalent among the Egyptians; who are conjectured to have owed this propensity to their humid and marshy soil, which was promoted among the Etrurians by the low situation of maritime Tuscany. Our readers, however, will not perhaps discover the connection between swamps and devotion, and would be diverted by the adroitness with which the author manages the exceptions to this hypothesis which he finds among the inhabitants.

The character of the Ligurians is not much more favourably sketched here than in the preceding work: but their distinguishing feature, the republican love of independence, is contrasted with the partiality for a monarchical government, which is said to have been always displayed by their neighbours the Piedmontese.

That part of the work which is employed on the principal people who were formerly known by the name of Cisalpines and Lombards, and in later times by that of Italians properly so called, is divided into several sections, which distinctly treat of the *Insubrians* or Milanese; of the *Cenomane* Gauls (*Cenomani*) and their descendants, viz. the people of Brescia, Verona, Mantua, and Cremona; of the antient and modern Venetians; of those of the March of Trevisano, of Friuli and Istria; and of those of Romagnia, Ferrara, and Bologna. In this discussion, many particulars respecting these Italians are enumerated; and, according to M. DENINA, certain

certain professions and occupations are as indigenous in certain districts as plants, so that the new possessor and governor of Italy is instructed where he may find materials for every purpose*. Pursuing his ideas of the influence of locality on man, the author observes that

'Istria, which is an appendage to Venetian Dalmatia, as well as Friuli, on account of the nature of the country and the character of the inhabitants, may be compared to Liguria. Though the origin of these two nations is different, one coming from the west of Europe and the other from the east of Asia, one being Celtic and the other Illyrian, yet the Istrians and the Ligurians present themselves to us in the pages of antient history under a very similar aspect. Both were warriors, navigators, and merchants; both were accused of being pirates; and if, adverting to more modern times, we consider the Istrians as making one power with the Venetians, we shall find them the rivals of the Genoese in their traffic and enterprizes on the Levant.'

Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, the three largest islands of the Mediterranean sea, form the subject of the concluding part of M. DENINA's essay, in which he endeavours to maintain and illustrate his leading principle.—These three islands present us with people as different from each other as they are from the Italians; and the dissimilarity equally respects their sources in the primitive nations from which they proceeded, and the circumstances of the countries which they occupy, the one being volcanic, the second marshy, and the third woody and mountainous.

It does not appear that the Romans held either the island or the natives of Corsica in any estimation: but it is probable from one circumstance that they preferred the Corsicans to the Sardinians. The former are represented as a people constantly jealous of their liberty, and always firm and resolute in defending it; a character which they are supposed to derive from the wild and uncultivated state of the island. Its modern history is quoted as a proof of the martial spirit of the inhabitants; and the simplicity of antient manners was, as we are informed, in general preserved to the period of its subjugation by France. It is added that 'a love and taste for the sciences, and a disposition adapted to the cultivation of the fine arts and the elegancies of life, were not so apparent in Corsica as in Sicily, or even in Sardinia. The nature of the country, the thin population of the towns, and their scanty commerce, were mighty obstacles to prevent this from being the case.' Corsica, however, has produced some celebrated men,

* The work is dedicated, in the old style of adulation, to Eugene Napoleon, Vice-Roy of Italy.

as *Ganganelli* and *Braschi*; and we have a Corsican now acting on the political stage, who, though not mentioned as honouring the island which gave him birth, will make it more celebrated than either of the holy fathers who filled the Apostolic chair.

The chief value of the statistical sketch, subjoined to this volume, consists in the notices respecting the population of the regions which *Bonaparte* has added to the kingdom of Italy, as well as of the twelve departments into which this new kingdom is divided. Here the sum total of the population of these departments is given at 3,826,385; while the population of the Venetian district, including Friuli and the city of Venice, is stated to amount to 1,630,951, and that of Istria to 325,930; making an additional population of nearly two millions.—Both the productions and the wants of Upper Italy are enumerated by M. DENINA; who seems to be desirous of displaying the resources and of stimulating the exertions of this people.

Mon.

ART. V. *A Critical History of the Roman Republic.* By M. LEVESQUE.

[*Art. concluded from the last Appendix.*]

IN pursuing with this ingenious writer the progress of his narrative and his discussion, we now find the scene expand, events of the highest interest crowd on us, and the author rises with the subject; or, to speak more correctly, the subject becomes more worthy of his superior pen. He betrays no ignorance of the details of Roman warfare, he seizes every striking trait of internal administration, and he exposes the maxims and views of that artful and consummate but often base foreign policy, our too early acquaintance with which prevents us from obtaining the intimate knowlege which the subject merits. Though a partisan of Carthage, and devoted to Hannibal, our narrator pays due tribute to the virtues and accomplishments of the two elder Scipios. Cato Major is also well depicted; the offensive traits are industriously collected, and have their effect in the picture; and it challenges contemplation, as it enables us to sit in judgment on the age which offered incense to the original. Under what mistakes, with respect to this object of Roman devotion, would posterity have laboured, had the life of him by Plutarch perished in the wreck of antient literature!

M. LEVESQUE is sufficiently warranted in stating that the Romans, through all the time during which their intercourse was confined to their nearest neighbours, remained barbarians. The Tuscans, it is well known, were acquainted with the arts,

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but we are not informed of their progress in literature and philosophy: their coarse dramatic representations, however, and their combats of gladiators, are indications of a state remote from refinement. The austere Sabines possessed barely that knowlege which enabled them to supply wants of the first necessity; and though the arts were known in Latium, we have no evidence that its inhabitants made use of letters. It was not till the Romans carried war into the eastern part of Italy, then called *Magna Græcia*, that they were imbued with the literature of the Greeks. Minds formed in a happier mould, observes this author, learned the language of these people, and perused and grew enamoured of their works: but the earliest essay in the same walk, among the Romans themselves, does not go back to a more remote epoch than the first Punic war. Without this acquisition, which they derived from those with whom they became acquainted in consequence of waging war with them, the Romans (as is here remarked) would have been only fortunate robbers; and they never would have been formed into those illustrious conquerors whose talents and accomplishments have consecrated even their crimes.

The steps by which the Roman power increased are traced by M. Levesque with great distinctness; and the obligations of its ambitious founders to their own valour and address, as well as those which they owed to the jealousy and blindness of their enemies, are distinguished and clearly pointed out. Want of concert, of which so many complaints have been made in our own days, is not less striking in the times of which an account is here given. The jealousy and pique incident to neighbouring nations, then as well as now, obstructed great views of general policy: the cities and states of Greece even assisted the Romans to reduce the power of a king of Macedon; and this same monarch, thus humbled, and the same jealous neighbours, lent effectual aid to the same faithless people in their war with Antiochus: while that potentate was deterred by envious and treacherous ministers, from listening to counsels by which he would have carried terror into the very heart of his enemy's country. It is here truly said 'that the Greeks of this period were no better than children, whom mere words could deceive.' After the humiliation of Philip, their fate wholly depended on the Romans; and when the cities, which had been subject to that prince, were declared free at the Isthmian games, the excess of their ridiculous joy is in the recollection of every one who has read their history. It must be owned that the policy of Rome no where appears to more advantage, than as it respects this not less singular than distinguished people. At first,

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the Romans levied no tribute on the Greeks, imposed no garrisons on them, and left them in possession of their antient laws; they received orders from no foreign authority; they were in appearance their own masters: but they did not perceive that they owed all to the forbearance of the Romans.

M. Levesque very properly fixes the attention of his readers on the great change which took place in Rome, immediately after the conquest of Macedonia:

'On that occasion, the Romans were declared free from tribute, and none was levied on them from that period till the year following the death of Julius Cæsar: but the burthen was thrown on the conquered countries. The Romans, so far from submitting to taxation, thought only of enriching themselves at the expence of the state, and of its allies; and very soon after this period, the great magistracies were only sought as the means of making a fortune; the provinces became scenes of the most grievous oppression; and governments were obtained merely in order to be subjected to pillage. Immense sums were squandered to secure elections, in hopes that the appointments to which they led would indemnify and even enrich the candidates. The history of the so much boasted Roman virtue is enveloped in a cloud: but when we arrive at a more bright epoch, and we become really acquainted with the Romans, we find them to be a most odious people. No nation has practised all the species of corruption with so little shame.'

This author reprobates with laudable indignation the baseness and infamy of the conduct of Rome towards its hapless rival. The senate had secretly decreed the destruction of Carthage; their commander had received positive instructions to carry the decree into execution: but with this people, whom they had thus devoted, they still parleyed, and held out to them fallacious hopes. On the arrival of the Roman forces in Africa, the Carthaginians were required to deliver to the hands of their enemy three hundred of their principal youth; being assured that on this condition they should remain free, and enjoy their laws and their territory. This request was fulfilled; the youths were sent to Rome; and the Carthaginian deputies were informed that the terms of peace would be announced to them at Utica. When arrived there, they were ordered to deliver up their arms and warlike implements: this was also done: they were then told that they must quit Carthage, and remove three leagues into the interior, the Romans having resolved to raze their city. Such a demand, then first intimated, was peremptory; and the commander had no power to allow them time for sending ambassadors to Rome, in order to invoke the clemency of the senate.

The despair which this unparallelled treachery and this nefarious requisition inspired, and the efforts worthy of a better fate

fate which they excited, are well known. Among other reflections, the author makes the following on this conduct of the Romans towards their rival:

'There may be ministers in modern Europe capable of acting on the system of Roman perfidy: but what nation, on reading these traits, would not blush to be compared with them? I do not know that we are naturally better than they were, but we have been better educated. They confined all their affections within the precincts of their city, we extend ours to all mankind. We know and feel that our principal regard is due to our fellow citizens: but we know also that the love of mankind is a duty.'

We have here fine sentiments: but we must regret that they do not come with a better grace from the quarter whence they proceed. The moderns are certainly not chargeable with the wild phrenzy which can massacre in cold blood, and which can wreak vengeance on inanimate matter: but as far as pillage and perfidy are concerned, we fear that these base Romans are chargeable with no displays which cannot be parallelled in the conduct of those whom this writer extols and courts. Is he acquainted with the proceedings which led to the fall of Venice, and of Hesse, not to mention other instances?

'We search,' says the author, 'for the causes of what we call the Roman greatness; and one is easily discovered, but we are unwilling to acknowlege it as such;—it is this;—abroad they had not a sentiment either of honour or humanity.'—May we in the same way account for a greatness which has suddenly grown up in our own times?

The attempts of the Gracchi are related with great conciseness and perspicuity: the intrigues and counter-intrigues are well pointed out: the whole relation shews great judgment and able discrimination; and the reflections and observations with which it is interpersed are admirable. Introductory to his account of these commotions, the author states a curious change which had gradually taken place in the economy of the Roman state. That portion of a conquered territory, which it had been usual to distribute among the poor citizens, the wealthy in later times had contrived to get into their own possession; and the cultivation of these lands was not intrusted by rich proprietors to freemen, but slaves were exclusively employed: a preference which was given on account of the liability of the former to serve the state in the field, and also of the frequent calls on them to attend the comitia. It consequently happened that the freemen decreased daily, and the slaves multiplied. Italy became thinly peopled with freemen, and covered with slaves; and lands formerly managed by victorious hands were now worked by servile labourers.

As far, therefore, as it was the object of the elder Gracchus to remedy this evil, he was guided by true policy, and the wishes of all enlightened citizens must have been in his favour.—It is worthy of notice that oratory was first introduced among the Romans by these ill-fated brothers.

In these volumes the reader will find not only the progress of corruption distinctly marked, but he will see traced step by step the inroads on those constitutional forms which were the guards of the freedom of the state, from the successive consulships of Marius to that monopoly of power which was realized by Pompey. M. LEVESQUE anxiously exhibits to our view all those events that occurred in the declining days of the republic, which create disgust; and that dispose the mind for the subversion of those forms under which Rome had risen to be the mistress of the world, and the human mind had attained an intellectual height beyond which it seems not to have the power of ascending. Those immortal geniuses, who diffused such splendour over the Augustan age, were the offspring of a different order of things; though despotism, it is true, bribed them to offer incense to it, and to gild the slavery which it introduced.—In no part of his work is the author more the partisan than in his accounts of the Roman affairs under Pompey and Cæsar. It is not to be disputed that Cæsar was by far the superior man; and perhaps a man with greater talents for military command and civil rule, and who united to them more of general accomplishments, has never lived: but we must shut our eyes against the clearest evidence, before we can agree with this writer in ascribing the ascendancy long enjoyed by Pompey to low art and intrigue; practices which, it ought to be recollected, were not disdained by his more splendid and imposing antagonist. This portion of the history is much laboured, and will be read with great interest and advantage by those who are sufficiently acquainted with the subject, to enable them to distinguish between the facts stated and the conclusions here drawn from them. That Pompey forced Cæsar to appeal to arms, that he as little respected the liberty of his country as his rival, that he would have been not less despotic had the fortune of war declared in his favour, and that he would have been more revengeful and cruel, we shall not dispute with the advocate of Cæsar: we also admit that he has obtained the reputation, without meriting it, of falling in defence of the liberty of his country, to which he certainly was as little friendly as his opponent: but when we have conceded thus much, we cannot with the author go the length of representing him as destitute of every eminent qualification. Be it also remembered that all

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the virtue, the respectability, and the wealth of Rome were on the side of Pompey.

The talents of Cicero, and the obligations under which his genius has laid all future times, inspire the present author with no indulgence for his failings, but the orator is severely and we think unjustly treated by him. He charges him with over-rating his services in defeating the conspiracy of Catiline: —but do we derive this impression from the perusal of Sallust? That historian was no friend of the orator, and his testimony ought on every ground to overbalance the insinuations of a later and more questionable writer. If we allow weight to the cavils here advanced in opposition to the most unexceptionable contemporaneous accounts, and the clearest evidence of facts, we must renounce all faith in history. Not less does the author seem to us to lose sight of the duty of an impartial narrator, when he acquits Cæsar of any privity to this foul transaction.—With regard, however, to the base complaisance of Pompey towards Sylla, and the noble disregard of him shewn by Cæsar, these are transactions which M. Levesque does not fail to place in a forcible light.

A trait of the times highly worthy of notice is here extracted from one of Cicero's epistles to Atticus. On the orator's return from banishment, his houses, it is well known, were rebuilt at the public expence. While his town-residence was re-constructing, the infamous Clodius, attended by a troop of armed men, chased away the workmen, materially damaged the house of his brother Quintus, and attempted to set it on fire: the monster then traversed the city in search of his enemies, in order to put them to death; and he offered their liberty to such slaves as would join him. Cicero himself, a few days afterward, was attacked by men armed with stones, staves, and swords; and with difficulty he found shelter under the roof of a friend. The house of Milo was actually set on fire, but the incendiaries were opposed by his slaves, and many lives were lost.—All this was the work of Clodius; who was at the time a candidate for the edileship, and who succeeded in obtaining it, though criminally prosecuted by Milo. These disgraceful scenes excite a remark from the author,—'never was the like seen except in this famous republic of Rome;'—and the moral, which French readers are expected to draw from this relation, no doubt is that they ought to be duly thankful for being blessed with a master who maintains a vigorous police among them.—It is to be lamanted that these violences, which occurred in the latter days of the republic, were less the consequences of an over-

grown empire, than the effects of the infamous contrivances of the great men of Rome; who countenanced wretches like Clodius, in order to induce the peaceable citizen to forego liberty, and submit to their domination.

If M. Levesque be far from just to Cicero, he has made admirable use of the orator's letters; and, by connecting together the facts which lie scattered in them, he has been enabled to give a more satisfactory view of many of the transactions of the period to which they refer, than has been afforded by any preceding writer. The result of the whole is that Pompey, from an early age, was seeking by various means to render himself master of Rome; and that, in pursuit of this object, he forced Cæsar to make war on his country, or to give himself up to certain destruction. The practices of Cæsar to obtain the same supremacy are rather passed over than called in question by the present author.

Alive to all that respects his hero, M. Levesque is anxious to repel the injurious reports which prevailed respecting him at the time of his residence in Egypt; and which have represented him as wasting precious weeks and months in the arms of Cleopatra, and in a vortex of pleasure. These he treats as malicious rumours, and occupies him during the nine months, of which no intelligence from him reached Rome, in reducing Pharnaces: but the conqueror's own memorable and laconic account of that contest, *veni, vidi, vici*, does not well accord with the hypothesis of his modern vindicator.

Cæsar's information was not such as rendered evident to him the inefficacy and inutility of sumptuary laws: but an enactment of a more salutary kind was that by which cultivators were compelled to have one third of their labourers consist of freemen.

In pleading the cause of Cæsar before the present generation, M. Levesque is obliged to admit that, through the intervention of his creatures, he procured for himself the whole power of the state; and that he accepted every sacrifice and homage which the most abject could devise, and which free and manly minds dared not to oppose. He suffered himself to be called *Jupiter Julius:* a college of priests called *Julians* was consecrated, to observe the rites of the new divinity: a temple was erected to his honour, of which Mark Antony was the pontiff: one of the months was called by his name; and his birth-day was observed as a festival. The senate never met except for form. Cæsar never deigned to consult the conscript fathers, but drew up himself the decrees, called then *senatûs consulta*, and subscribed them with the names of such senators as first occurred to him. He received

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the consuls and prætors, who waited on him to announce fresh honours decreed to him by the senate, in a sitting-posture; and the probability is that he had the weakness to desire to be invested with the title of king. To shew, as this author does, that such would have been a preposterous wish, by no means overturns the strong presumptions of the fact which history furnishes.

All those steps which contributed to overturn the republic, and paved the way to the absolute rule of one man, are here supported and defended. Hence the honours of the proscription of the second triumvirate are softened down, and the number of victims diminished, in opposition to the voice of history. Nothing so much disgraces the author before us, as the manner in which he speaks of the sacrifice of Cicero by Octavius; nor does he seem to be sensible to the deep stain which this base concession has inflicted on his memory, the odium of which his subsequent high fortunes have been ineffectual to wipe away. Seldom have we felt more disgust than in perusing M. Levesque's account of the fall of this great ornament of free Rome, and in observing the apathy with which he relates the treachery and brutality which accompanied that tragic event. The Roman orator caught the spirit of the times, justified tyrannicide, and rejoiced in the fall of the man who had subverted the freedom of his country: but it is the object of this author to induce on his readers a persuasion that Cæsar, in setting up absolute power, acted a meritorious part; and, in order to support his preposterous design, he is obliged to represent the writers, who at a later period describe those events, as calumniators and violators of truth. 'Under the empire,' he tells us, 'the Romans groaned almost incessantly beneath odious tyrants: but of the republic, which existed no longer, authors drew a flattering image; they hated Cæsar, whom they accused of subverting it; they hated his partisans; they revered the memory of his murderers; and thus it is that the faction of the Pompeians subsisted for many ages after the death of Pompey, and is not extinct even in our days.'

It would seem that the Romans never sunk to that pitch of degeneracy which is exemplified by this writer, in abstractedly extolling despotism and depreciating liberty. It is the incessant tyranny which followed, and all its dire effects, (which are here admitted,) that condemn most strongly the usurpation of Cæsar, that have rendered his memory odious, and that make us revere the intentions of his destroyers, while we reprobate the deed. In our opinion of the effects of that act, however, we do not much differ from this writer: 'the perpetrators,' he

observes, 'intended by it to save the Republic, but they only dug the grave into which, after thirteen years of grievous suffering, she ultimately fell. During this period, every country subject to Rome became the scene of bloody contests, and was harassed and laid waste in turn by Antony, Lepidus, Octavius, Decimus Brutus, Marcus Brutus, or Sextus Pompey. Antony and Octavius find themselves left alone in this vast scene of carnage; which they are about to subject to fresh havoc, in order to settle their own quarrels.' For all this, however, are the murderers of Cæsar alone to blame; and must not the daring subversions and bold innovations of the usurper come in for any share of the censure?

In the vast maze of Roman affairs, down to the period of the battle of Pharsalia, we found the present writer a guide who, if liable to some blame, deserved considerable praise on the whole: but from that epoch to the conclusion of his narrative, our feelings of disgust are too often excited, by the frequent interposition of reflections and suppositions which facts do not warrant, and which are in themselves unwelcome and odious to the lovers of practical liberty. Yet we, perhaps, ought less to censure the author, than that busy and anxious tyranny which requires that the monuments and remains of antient times should be perverted and falsified, in order to confirm its power and to promote its purposes.

M. Levesque's accounts of the several emperors are extremely short, but have the merit of being in the main correct. With the exception of the first reign, they form a very good comment on the services rendered to the Roman people by the usurpations of Julius and Augustus, and supply a ready antidote to the poison interspersed throughout the latter part of the author's own last volume.

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Art. VI. *L'Art de la Teinture du Coton en rouge*, &c.; *i. e.* The Art of dyeing Cotton red. By M. J. A. Chaptal, Member and Treasurer of the Senate, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 172, and 4 Plates. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5s.

Although many circumstances of a political and commercial nature contribute, in most cases, to give a decided superiority to the manufactures of this country, it would appear that, in some few branches, we are still excelled by the French. We particularly refer to such as depend on the application of chemical principles, of which the art of dyeing may be regarded as one of the most important. This superiority on the part of our rivals does not, we conceive, arise from the knowlege of

chemistry being more perfectly attained or more extensively diffused among them, but on the circumstance of their scientific men applying themselves more immediately to the cultivation of these arts. The improvements made in this country are frequently the result of accident, or are introduced merely from the experience of the manufacturer; who endeavours to imitate effects which he sees produced, without understanding their cause, or indeed comprehending the nature of the process by which he attempts to re-produce them. In the volume before us, we have an example of one of the most learned of the French chemists devoting himself to the minute details of a practical art, and describing, with the most perfect accuracy, all the parts of a manufacturing process.

M. CHAPTAL commences with a short history of the developement of the general principles of dyeing. It was *Bergmann* who first entertained just views on this subject, and who shewed that it was not merely a mechanical adherence between the stuff and the colouring matter, but that a real chemical union took place between them. The theory was much advanced by *Berthollet*, to whom this work is dedicated; and the subsequent additions that have been made can be regarded as little else than completing and illustrating the system which he had established. The particular process which forms the object of this treatise, —the application of the madder dye to cotton,—was formerly confined to Turkey; and it is only of late years that the art has been practised in this part of Europe. It is now, indeed, thoroughly understood, but yet it is a process of considerable difficulty, and requires the greatest nicety in the operation. We may read the book now before us with double advantage, since it not only presents us with the ideas of an enlightened philosopher, but contains the result of an extensive application of them to actual practice; for the writer informs us that he has for some time conducted a large manufactory of this kind, and that no process is recommended in this volume which has not been sanctioned by ample experience.

The author takes up his subject from the very beginning, and occupies the first two chapters in describing the proper situation for the establishment, and the arrangements necessary for carrying on the different processes to the best advantage. The descriptions are accompanied by plates of the several parts of the building, of the different kinds of vessels to be employed, and of the manner in which the operations are to be performed. The 3d chapter is devoted to the consideration of the materials which are used in dyeing cotton by madder; viz. the madder itself, olive-oil, soda, alum, and galls. The directions given for ascertaining the quality of the oil may serve as a

specimen of the author's attention even to minute circumstances:

'The most simple, and, at the same time, the most certain method of ascertaining the quality of the oil is the following. We pour into a glass some drops of the oil under examination, and on it a quantity of the lixivium of Alicant soda, of one or two degrees of *Baumé*'s hydrometer. The mixture then becomes of a milky whiteness; this saponaceous liquor is poured several times from one vessel to another, and the glass is then placed on a table, to let the fluid remain at rest. The oil is declared good if, after having been at rest for some hours, the liquor continues to be white and saponaceous: but it is considered as bad if it rises to the surface in the form of white drops, or if the mixture becomes clear, or only slightly opake, or if a stratum of soft soap be formed at the surface, while the remainder of the fluid acquires the appearance of butter-milk.'

Directions equally precise are given respecting the other articles that are employed in the operation. When speaking of the different kinds of soda which occur in commerce, M. Chaptal is led to observe, that the qualities of this substance may differ considerably according to the state of the plant from which it is obtained. He imagines that it is only formed at the end of the summer, when the vegetation of the plant has ceased; and that, if we attempt to procure it at an earlier period, the salt will not possess the genuine properties of soda. As an illustration of this principle, a curious fact is mentioned respecting the tamarisk. In the ashes of this plant is contained a very considerable quantity of the sulphate of soda: but it has been found that, if the branches be burned while they are full of sap, and in the act of vegetation, a strong odour of sulphurated hydrogen is exhaled, and no sulphate of soda is found among the ashes. The chief circumstance to which we should attend in the choice of the alum is that it be entirely free from iron, and in this point the Roman alum excels every other species. The author, however, informs us that the alum which is formed by uniting its constituent parts, according to a process originally suggested by himself, promises to answer every purpose of the Roman alum.

Chapter IV. consists altogether of minute details respecting the arrangements and manipulations of different parts of the process; and the fifth gives an equally distinct account of the means by which the cotton is made to assume the dye. The operation is divided into four stages,—the preparation of the cotton,—the application of the mordants,—the application of the madder,—and the brightening of the colour. The mordants employed are alum and galls, and the nitrate of tin is used to bring out the colour. After having described the process at

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is found on the whole most certainly effectual, the author notices some modifications which it has received, either for the purpose of diminishing the quantity of labour, or for that of substituting some less expensive articles in the room of those generally employed. Potash has been tried, and appears to fulfill every purpose of soda: but no astringent has yet been obtained which can supersede the use of galls.

Besides the red dye which is obtained from madder in the usual process, it occasionally becomes an object with the manufacturer to produce other shades of colour, and particularly violet. This is generally effected by the mixture of indigo: but it appears that a better colour may be obtained by mixing with the madder some preparation of iron; and the pyrolignite is the one which the author has found most eligible.

The last chapter contains an account of the manner in which the madder operates, and the principles on which the different steps of the process are conducted. This discussion leads the author to give an analysis of madder, with an account of the effects produced on it by different chemical re-agents; and from these experiments he deduces the following conclusions. 'I. That the colouring principle of madder is a natural mixture of yellow and red, which is fixed in the vegetable by an extractive matter, that is more abundant in the bark than in the wood; 2. That the yellow principle is extracted in a greater quantity than the red by the first washings; 3. That the two principles cannot be kept dissolved in water, except in a very small quantity; and, 4. That the two principles have a very strong affinity to alum and oil.' Proceeding on these data, the theory of the process becomes obvious; the cotton is impregnated with oil, and afterward with a salt of alumine, for the purpose of enabling it to attract a sufficiently large portion of the colouring matter of the madder. The galls which are used seem to co-operate to the same end; for it appears that they form a kind of union with the oil, and enable it still more strongly to attach the colouring matter to the cotton. When the process is complete, the cotton is found to contain a considerable quantity of oil, galls, and alumine, which are strongly united to it, and which are each of them saturated with the colouring matter.

We have been induced to give rather a full account of the contents of this volume, because we conceive that they may afford some useful information to the manufacturer, and still more in order to induce our scientific chemists to follow the example which has been set them by M. CHAPTAL, in applying their knowlege not merely to illustrate the general principles of an useful art, but to perfect its minute practical details.

ART. VII. *Histoire Naturelle, Générale, et Particulière,* &c.; *i. e.* The Natural History, general and particular, of Crustaceous Animals and Insects, forming Part of the Continuation of the Works of *Leclerc de Buffon*, and of the complete Course of Natural History, edited by *C. S. Sonnini*, Member of several learned Societies. By P. A. LATREILLE, Member of the National Institute of France, of the Linnéan Society of London, of the Philomatic and Natural History Societies of Paris, and of that of Sciences, Belles Lettres, and Arts, of Bourdeaux. 14 Vols. 8vo. Paris. Years X—XIII.

SEVERAL years have now elapsed since M. *Sonnini* and his coadjutors completed their design of re-publishing and greatly extending the writings of the celebrated *Buffon*, so as to embrace all the departments of Natural History. The volumes on our table form the most recent portion of the series that has come within our reach, and comprize the results of twenty years of patient meditation and research. The author's general and preliminary views of his subject are unfolded in the first three volumes, and will doubtless attract the distinguished attention of British entomologists; especially of such of them as, in the present *blockade* of continental literature have not been able to procure the other valuable writings of this eminent naturalist.

M. LATREILLE's introductory volumes, then, contain eight discourses, a sketch of entomological systems, and an exposition of the families of his genera.

I. *Of the nature of Insects, and of their order in the series of animals.* This title naturally involves the meaning of the term *insect*, the limits of entomology, and the organic relations which insects bear to other animals. According to the author's comprehensive definition, an insect is *an animal without vertebræ, and with articulated feet.* In most instances, it is destitute of red blood.

'If, on crushing an insect, a bright red liquor, or even real blood' should flow from it, this liquor will be found to be matter lodged under the cornea of the eyes of many two-winged insects, or a fluid diffused in the body, but possessing no property in common with blood except the red colour; or, finally, real blood, but extraneous to the insect, and which it has drawn from the body of some quadruped, bird, or other red-blooded animal, for the sake of nourishment. The characteristic property of blood is that of sustaining life by a constant circulation; and no such principle exists in the red liquor which is sometimes observable in the body of insects. I speak not here of the crustaceous tribes; for they seem to have a distinct system of circulation.'

Hence *Lamarck* and *Cuvier* have ranked the latter in a separate class, and the present author follows their example: but

but he begs leave to suspend his approbation of the division of *arachnidæ*, until the internal organization of the animals so denominated shall be better understood. Meanwhile, he justly conceives that the articulation of the limbs sufficiently discriminates insects from other animals that want the dorsal spine; for, though mollusca and worms may be furnished with tentacula, appendages, or tubercles, they are unprovided with those jointed and very moveable limbs which are so obvious in the others.

II. *Of the manner of studying Insects.* The first practical advice delivered under this head is to peruse, with care and diligence, the works of *Réaumur*, *Swammerdam*, *de Geer*, *Lyonnet*, &c. In those of the first mentioned naturalist, we only desiderate a description of the animal whose manners he delineates with so much pleasing interest and accuracy of detail. *De Geer*, it is admitted, sometimes falls into the opposite extreme, and describes with superfluous prolixity:

'But this defect is attended with fewer inconveniences than that of excessive brevity of description; for we may always lop redundancies, while it is often impossible to supply omissions. I would even advise every young writer on natural history to neglect no detail, especially in the description of merely insulated species. He will thus acquire the habit of seizing the most minute relations, and of distinguishing the smallest characters: nothing will escape him. Time will correct that tediousness of manner which is at first requisite to the due discrimination of general, individual, and accidental traits in the physiognomy of natural objects. Most of our great naturalists have commenced their career with long descriptions, and thus announced their desire of observing every thing; while those, whose early writings are not stamped with the same spirit, seldom become profound. So natural is it for man to relax from the rigor of his principles, that we may augur unfavourably of a superficial commencement.'

After having sufficiently perused and re-perused the works of *Swammerdam*, *Réaumur*, &c. the student is advised to direct his attention to the entomological philosophy of *Fabricius*, (which will be better understood through the medium of *Saint-Amand*'s book on the same subject,) and to a valuable memoir of *Olivier* on the masticating organs of insects. When he is thus initiated in the elementary principles of the science, the excellent history of the insects of the environs of Paris, by *Geoffroi*, should form the subject of his daily and hourly meditations. M. LATREILLE considers this estimable publication as the best key to the other systems of entomology, on account not only of the simplicity of the plan, but of the facility with which it identifies the nomenclature of *Fabricius* and that of *Linné*. *Schæffer*'s elements of entomology afford an accurate intimation

intimation of the genera which had been established at the time of their publication; and *Sulzer*, or *Roemer*, his editor, might have proved of more essential service, if the plates had been executed on a larger scale, and accompanied by the requisite quantity of detail.

These instructions are followed by some judicious hints on the necessity and due limitation of entomological excursions; and on the most advantageous methods of observing, preserving, and examining insects, so as to become acquainted with their habits, and to assign to them their proper station in scientific arrangement. To general readers, however, these directions might appear in our pages minute and tedious, while the zealous student will be desirous of perusing them in the work itself: but the author's strictures on the basis of the Fabrician method are too pertinent to be suppressed:

'When I include the form of the body in the number of the generic characters of insects, I deviate from the principles of *Fabricius*, who, in all his primary sections, has respect to nothing but the feeding instruments. A method founded on a single organ is doubtless more beautiful and uniform: but is it practicable, at least in zoology, and especially in the study of insects? I think that it is not; and, even if it were, I should regard it as beyond the reach of ordinary minds. Alas! shall we labour merely to cherish our own self-love, and to please only a few of the learned? Shall we consider that geometrician, who proposes to his pupils demonstrations and solutions of those problems of which a *Lagrange*, a *Laplace*, and men of their high acquirements alone hold the key, as a better teacher than him whose lessons are conceived on a more humble scale? Let us simplify our methods, and adapt them to practice, whatever it may cost; let our readers follow and comprehend us; and let us always prefer general utility to a few testimonies of admiration.

'I think that I have sufficiently shewn my acquaintance with the feeding instruments of insects; and I do not imagine that M. *Fabricius*, and all the zealous partisans of his grand principle of the unity of generic characters, will tax me with ignorance of this part of the subject. If, therefore, I raise my voice against it, my only motive is the desire of extending and smoothing the road that conducts to science. Here, two sorts of characters at once present themselves to our notice;—the one more ingenious and perhaps more solid, but surrounded by difficulties of such magnitude as frequently to preclude our perception of it, or even to lead us astray:—the other is more simple, more obvious, and less consistent with itself: but the errors, into which its variations may drag us, are less numerous than those which arise from our embarrassment in comprehending the first. In such circumstances, is it not reasonable to prefer the second? I am far, very far indeed, from alleging that we should *neglect* the first. The true naturalist is aware of its importance; he knows that he should examine his object in all its aspects, and that he cannot properly establish a genus until he has collected its characters from all its

its parts: but he writes for the many, and, putting himself on their level, he traces an easy and practicable path. Let the characters of the gait or habit of the insect, then, accompany those which are furnished by the organs of manducation. *Fabricius* himself was sensible of the necessity of this combination, since his systematic entomology exhibits these two sorts of characters.

'I might moreover demonstrate, if I thought it proper, that this grand principle of characteristic unity is irreconcileable with the procedure of Nature. Is it not on the organs of motion, on the feet, or the wings, that she rests the foundation of her leading sections? and, if she thus acts in her principal divisions, she may likewise do so in those which are subordinate. These organs of motion, then, have, in the eyes of this sovereign ruler of our methods, an important value. Why does not M. *Fabricius* perceive this; and why should he rank us among bad entomologists, because we include in our examination all those parts which Nature herself tells us are almost equally essential? Would we, for example, adopt the ideas of that naturalist, who, in his general divisions of reptiles, should pass in silence the presence or absence of the limbs, and the disposition of the integuments? Would we subscribe to the opinion of the ornithologist, who, in his method, should keep every thing out of consideration but the Bill? Could we discern in those schemes, founded on a single basis, the procedure of Nature?—But let us drop these discussions.'

We are next presented with some considerable suggestions relative to the proper adjustment of genera and species, and the adoption of a commodious nomenclature. *Knoch's Neue Beytrage zur Insectenkunde* is recommended as a masterpiece, on account both of the descriptions and the figures; and the student is dismissed with the salutary advice of aiding his descriptive talents by the use of the pencil.

III. *Of the instinct and industry of Insects.* This discourse, which occupies a large portion of the first volume, is divided into two chapters; I. *On the instinct and industry of Insects in their modes of nourishment*; II. *On the instinct and industry of Insects in their means of self-defence.* The former is again subdivided into two articles, the first of which treats of the mode of feeding by suction, and the second of the mode of feeding by bruising or mastication.

Among the sucking species, some imbibe only the juice of fruits and plants; others pump the substance of their fellows, and the blood of other animals; while a third class prey alike on the fluid of the animal and the sap of the vegetable kingdom. The structure and organization of each species is admirably adapted to its peculiar style of suction, as is here particularly illustrated in the history of the butterfly, bee, &c. In glancing at the cruel depredations of the gad-fly, the author adverts to a fact which is not generally known. 'It has been observed,'

observed,' says he, 'that the gad-flies which attack animals are always females, and that males have never been found among them. The same circumstance has been remarked with regard to the gnat, no male of which has been known to bite.'

Of insects furnished with a masticating apparatus, some confine themselves to a single species of food, and others have a more promiscuous appetite; some eat with little intermission, and others are capable of supporting a long term of fasting; some feed in the day time, and others during night; some consume a very small quantity of food, and others gorge themselves till they swell, and fall senseless to the ground. It is, however, worthy of remark that mineral or stoney substances form no part of their aliment, though some incautious observers have asserted that certain insects eat sand, gravel, and even iron. The truth is that they may sometimes be seen with these materials in their mouths, for the purpose of employing them in the construction of their retreats.

A species of moth is particularly fond of bees' wax, a substance which chemistry has not yet been able to decompose; and a caterpillar, found in a resinous excrescence or gall of the pine, is known to live on a substance analogous to turpentine, which would poison almost any other insect. The stratagems employed by several species to secure their prey, and especially the wiles and devices of the spider tribe, are not here overlooked; and the author asserts incidentally that he stuck a spider to a piece of cork, and precluded it from every species of food during four successive months, at the end of which it appeared to be as lively as if it had received its accustomed fare.

Chapter II. treats, in seven articles, of as many means of self defence, viz. evasion of the enemy, the habitation of solitary insects, that of those which live in families, direct resistance of the enemy by organs adapted to the purpose, resistance by faculties with which nature has endowed certain species of insects, resistance by the use of certain natural weapons, and resistance by stratagem. Of these, the first serves only as an apology for a few general reflections introductory to the others. The solitary and the social dwellings of insects are discussed with a minute [illegible] pleasing interest: but, though most of the particulars may be found at still greater length in the pages of *Réaumur*, *Bonnet*, *Lyonnet*, &c. we shall be contented to extract only the author's refutation of a popular error:

'The foresight of ants has been highly extolled; and, during the lapse of three thousand years, authors have repeated with complacency that they hoard provisions for the winter, and that they construct magazines in which they deposit the grain that they have collected

collected during the fine season. These provisions would be quite useless to them, since it has been proved that they sleep during the whole of winter, and that a very moderate degree of cold suffices to benumb the whole family. What use, then, could they make of those pretended granaries? The fact is that they do not construct them. The grain, which they convey with so much activity to their city, is merely designed for materials to be employed in the construction of their dwellings, as also little splinters of wood, straw, or any other substance.'

Other parts of this chapter present us with much amusing but little original matter. They are followed by some excellent practical instructions relative to catching, preserving and transporting insects, &c. which we cannot make very intelligible without the plates, and for which the author is chiefly indebted to *Dufresne*, assistant-zoologist in the Museum of Natural History. To these is subjoined a very ingenious paper on the designations of the colours of insects, and on reducing the expressions of the intermediate shades to precise and determinate language.

IV. *Of the usefulness of Insects, and of their depredations.* With the exception of the crustaceous tribes, it is admitted that few insects contribute *directly* to the subsistence of the human race. The locust, indeed, forms an article of food in the desarts of Asia and Africa, but by no means an essential one; and, if it be long eaten, it is apt to induce leprosy. In some districts of India and America, the natives manifest a predilection for the larvæ of certain coleopterous insects, which lodge under the bark of trees: but their consumption is much limited, as they are seldom procured in any degree of abundance. The Romans, too, mention among their dainties the larvæ of an insect which they called *Cossus*, and which probably differed from the genus that bears the same name in modern nomenclature. If, however, the actual state of our knowlege permits us not to extend the list of insects which are directly subservient to the nourishment of man, it warrants the assertion that this class of animals furnishes us indirectly with very ample means of subsistence; myriads of birds and fishes live either wholly or partially on insects, or their larvæ; the bee provides us with honey from a thousand flowers; and the silk-worm and cochineal afford occupation and sustenance to multitudes.

In confirmation of the secondary advantages which are derived from the insect tribe, M. LATREILLE quotes the following facts:

'The ichneumons alone destroy more caterpillars, in the course of a year, than all the birds which live almost exclusively at their expence,

expence; especially during the education of their young. These insects, which are so little known, and which so well deserve to be studied, possess, like various species of flies, the faculty of depositing, within the body of caterpillars and other larvæ, a number of eggs proportioned to the size of their victims. These eggs are the rudiments of larvæ that devour the very substance of the body in which they are inclosed, and sooner or later prove the death of the caterpillar. Some ichneumons, also, lodge their eggs only in the nymphæ or eggs. The diversity of their means of attack, and of the consequent result, is equally worthy of our admiration. They are capable of detecting the larva that is most completely concealed under the bark of a tree, or in the middle of fruit, as well as that which wanders on the leaves. The most minute are not more effectually skreened from their pursuit than the largest. Kirby mentions that, without them, the *tipula tritici*, which is scarcely visible to the naked eye, must have soon annihilated the hopes of the harvest in that part of England in which he made his observations.

'Next to the ichneumons, we may mention the carabi, cicindelæ, spheges, wasps, chrysides, hornets, ants, dragon-flies, spiders, bugs, asili, empides, mantes, &c, as preying on other insects, and consuming a great quantity of them every year. There are, also, several larvæ, particularly those of the lady-fly, hemerobius, and some species of staphylinus, which in like manner feed on them, and consequently contribute to their destruction.

'Some kinds of weevils, attelabi, moths, flies, &c. by depositing their eggs within our fruits, are occasionally the source of much mischief: but they are often serviceable in accelerating the maturity of these fruits, and in sometimes imparting to the pulp a more savoury flavour. The caprification of figs, a practice which has uniformly obtained in the islands of the Archipelago, and which has been so much extolled in France, since *Tournefort* first made it known, is nothing else than the introduction of a species of cinips or some analogous insect into the interior of the figs; an introduction which at once forwards the maturity and improves the delicacy of the fruit.'

The more obvious injuries inflicted on our persons and property by various species of insects are next enumerated, but are so familiar to observation that they do not require to be particularized by us.

V. *Of the internal organization of Insects.* Under this division, the author comprehends the internal structure of the body, the principles of circulation and respiration, the nervous and sensitive system, and the organs of digestion.—The discussion of these several topics is prefaced by a candid avowal of the imperfect state of our knowlege relative to the anatomy of insects, and by a merited compliment to the labours of *Swammerdam*, *Malpighi*, *Lyonnet*, and *Cuvier*, of which the author gratefully professes to have availed himself.

The

The muscles of insects are represented as composed of bundles of soft flexible fibres, of a jelly-like transparency, and of a pretty uniform size and thickness throughout. The number of muscles in the human subject does not much exceed five hundred, whereas *Lyonnet* discovered in a single caterpillar four thousand and forty-one.—The presence of a heart in most of the species appears to be doubtful, and their mode of respiration is still involved in obscurity. M. LATREILLE touches slightly on the subject of their external senses, in the expectation of being furnished with more ample data than we now possess, from a series of experiments to be afterward instituted.—The number of hexagonal facets, or *eyes*, in some insects, is known to amount to fourteen thousand. That they possess the faculty of hearing can no longer be doubted, though the auricular organ has not been distinctly ascertained. Their power of smelling may also be proved by a great variety of instances: but a considerable diversity of opinion exists concerning the seat of this particular sense. The present author is inclined to place it in the antennæ, for these reasons:

'1. The exercise of the sense of smell consists only in the action of air impregnated with odoriferous particles on a nervous or olfactory membrane, which transmits the sensation.

'If insects possess an organ having similar nerves with which air, charged with odoriferous particles, comes in contract, that organ may be regarded as destined to smell. If the *antennæ* present a tissue with many nerves, why not allow such tissue to be olfactory? would not this hypothesis be more simple, and more conformable to the rules of analogy, than that which places the seat of smell at the opening of the stigmata? Besides, the crustaceous animals, which approach so nearly to insects, appear to me to recede from this last explanation.

'2. A great number of male insects have the *antennæ* more developed than those of the females, a fact which is easily explained on the supposition that these organs are the seat of smell.

'3. It is certain that most of those insects which live or lay their eggs in corrupted animal or vegetable matter,—in stagnant water,—in all substances in short which, for a time, affect one situation rather than another,—have, with very few exceptions, the antennæ more unfolded.—They required a more perfect sense of smell, and find it accordingly in the organization of the *antennæ*.

'4. Many insects, which subsist merely on plunder, have their *antennæ* simple; while those of similar and sedentary habits have none. Such are my *acères*, and a large portion of the *arachnides* of *Lamarck*.

'5. Insects discover their habitation as well as their food by means of smell. I have cut off the *antennæ* from many insects, and

they have forthwith fallen into a state of stupor, or derangement, and seemed to be incapable of recognizing their abode, or the food which was placed beside them. This experiment deserves to be prosecuted with more minuteness.

'6. The nerves terminate in the *antennæ,* and their articulations, though externally covered with a thickish membrane, are hollow, and internally lined with a soft substance which is often aqueous, the extremity of which when exposed to the air may receive its impressions.

'Such are the ideas which I submit to the experience and judgment of naturalists more enlightened than myself.'

VI. *Of the external organization of Insects.* This discourse is purely technical, and consists of an enumeration and short definitions of the external parts, with brief explanations of the scientific terms.

VII. *Of the generation of Insects.* Many of the criteria of sexual distinction, and some of the most remarkable anomalies in the history of amorous intercourse and production, are here stated with sufficient perspicuity.

VIII. *Of the instinct of Insects in the preservation of their offspring, and of their metamorphoses.* The various contrivances to which the parent insect has recourse for the protection of its eggs and young, and the wonderful transformation which most of the species are destined to undergo, are the two leading topics of this discourse. M. LATREILLE's statements, however, though able and amusing, are not new, and afford little room for comment.—They are followed by synoptical views of the methods of some of our most celebrated entomologists, and by a more detailed exposition of the generic families of his own institution. To the designations and divisions of these families we may probably advert, when we resume the examination of this estimable performance. In the meanwhile, we shall close these three preliminary volumes by expressing our desire that their materials had been more skillfully arranged, and treated with a more undeviating regard to good writing and the genuine spirit of didactic composition.

Mo-y.

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

ART. VIII. *Traité Elémentaire de Minéralogie*, &c.; *i. e.* An Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy, with its Application to the Arts. A work designed for instruction in the National Lyceums. By ALEXANDER BRONGNIART, Mineral Engineer, and Director of the Imperial Manufacture of Porcelain at Sevres. Two Vols. 8vo. pp. 1020. with 16 Plates. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 1s.

No department of physical science has of late years been more cultivated than Mineralogy. It embraces a wide circle of votaries among the curious and wealthy classes of the community; and it is intimately connected with that passion for travelling, and that laudable desire of exploring the productions of nature, which form distinguishing features of the present age. This fashionable study, however, is attended by peculiar difficulties, but which seem only to inflame the ardour of research. Minerals are not stamped with those obvious characters which discriminate the subjects of the animal and vegetable kingdoms: they exhibit infinite gradations of aspect; and under the same external appearance, they often conceal a total difference of structure, and of their general properties. To designate the constitution of these substances is therefore no easy task. Three distinct methods have been attempted for the classification of minerals; the first, founded on the aggregate of their external characters; the second, on the examination of their structure; and the third, on the result of their chemical and physical properties. We shall bestow a few words on the merits of each of these modes.

1. *External Characters.*—The inspection of their obvious qualities is the readiest and the most natural way of distinguishing minerals; and were it susceptible of tolerable accuracy, it ought assuredly to be preferred to every other mode of proceeding. In the hands of the celebrated *Werner*, it has been greatly improved, and has at last attained to a surprising degree of precision. Since the publication of his tract on external characters, in 1774, a new school of mineralogy has arisen in Germany, and is rapidly extending its influence over Europe. The professor of Freyberg has been extremely sparing of his writings: but that omission is amply supplied by the zeal of his pupils; who, with a truly German enthusiasm, are labouring to spread their master's fame, and to gain proselytes to his doctrines, in every quarter. The Wernerian system is evidently the production of a man of sense and observation, deeply skilled in the practical operations of mining, and well acquainted with the subterranean geography of that district of Upper Saxony in which he resides: but in the reports of his disciples, we look in vain

for correct and enlarged views; and some of his geological hypotheses, advanced under the imposing name of facts, appear completely at variance with the best established principles of philosophy and chemical science. It betrays the hard lineaments of its German origin;—an excessive subdivision;—a profusion of new and uncouth terms;—and a repulsive air of dogmatism, which pervades its whole structure. *Werner*, moreover, is not always faithful to the principles on which the system is founded: in some cases he seems to disregard the aspect of mineral substances, and to frame his arrangement and nomenclature on the relative position of the strata in which they occur; and while he again refers to those facts in treating of their geognostic habits, he may be suspected of inadvertently committing that capital error in logic—reasoning in a circle.

2. *Interior Structure.*—The mechanical analysis of minerals has been wonderfully improved within these few years. *Linné* has the credit of being the first to ground the classification of those bodies on their crystalline forms. The plan was well conceived: but he possessed not sufficient knowlege to carry it into successful execution. The celebrated *Bergman* shewed, by an application of geometry, how the same form would, by certain easy radical modifications, produce a considerable variety of crystals. The subject was afterward extensively pursued by *Romé Delisle*, who established the important principle that, of each substance, however diversified may be the appearances which it progressively exhibits, the angles of the original crystal continue perfectly invariable. It was reserved, however, for the ingenuity of *Haüy* to collect these scattered rays, and to erect a system of crystallography which is at once beautiful and comprehensive. By assuming certain simple laws of accretion, he derives from each primitive nucleus all the possible variety of external forms; and these deductions are found to include not only the crystals already known, but also such as the activity of modern research is continually bringing to light. The discoveries of *Haüy* are therefore of high importance, and have in some instances anticipated the results of the most refined chemical analysis: but the attempt seems overstrained, to make them the groundwork of any practicable method of classification. The principles themselves admit of considerable latitude of application; and it is only a very small proportion of mineral bodies that exhibit crystals so prominent and well defined as to be capable of accurate mensuration.

3. *Elementary composition.*—If an easy mode were devised for discovering the constitution of mineral bodies, it would undoubtedly

undoubtedly furnish the best and the surest data for a scientific arrangement. The art of chemical analysis has advanced in a wonderful degree: but the procedure is become proportionally more elaborate, and requires far greater skill and resources to direct it with success. As it involves also the destruction of part or the whole of the specimen, we can only resort to it in some extreme cases. A less perfect sort of trial, however, is used with the greatest advantage. The body to be examined is subjected to the action of acids, or exposed in contact with certain fluxes to the flame of a blow-pipe. The more obvious physical properties are likewise employed to distinguish minerals;—the density of the substance, its hardness, and its magnetical or electrical affections:—but in this kind of research much yet remains to be done. Instruments might be contrived of a simple form to measure the adhesion of earthy bodies to fluids, their absorbent powers, their capacity for heat, and their disposition to conduct it and to transmit the electric influence. By such means, we might gain an intimate acquaintance with the nature of most substances, without having recourse to the tedious and intricate process of decomposition.

None of these modes of distinguishing minerals appears therefore to be singly sufficient; and it requires the re-union of all the three, to form the basis of a complete arrangement: but to select and combine them skillfuly is an arduous task. The performance now before us answers our most sanguine expectations. It is decidedly superior, in all the essential points, to any treatise of mineralogy that we have yet seen; and it contains a vast mass of knowlege, disposed in luminous order and condensed into a narrow compass. The author has not confined himself to a bare description of minerals: but he has given variety and much interest to his work by noticing their application to the arts, by sketching their natural history, or by indicating the geological theories which have been proposed to explain their formation. The concise view of mining and metallurgy, subjoined to the treatise, as it includes the most recent improvements in those branches, will be deemed valuable; and we must applaud the judgment and impartiality which the author has everywhere shewn.

In the Introduction, M. Brongniart takes a rapid survey of the nature, the growth, and the structure of minerals, embracing the occasion to give a neat abstract of *Haüy*'s system. He then reviews the physical and chemical characters which are offered to examination, and proceeds to make some very judicious remarks on the divisions and nomenclature that should be used in mineralogy. In describing the process of

crystallization, he observes that the action of light seems to favour this process,—that the points and angles are always the first formed and the first to dissolve away,—and that the crystals extend themselves more in a horizontal than a vertical direction, and acquire a much faster growth at the bottom of a tall vessel than near the surface. This curious fact will admit of a simple explanation; for the integrant molecules, being denser than the solution from which they are separated, fall down, and augment by their continual accretion the expanding crystals below.

Werner, who certainly has studied the constitution of rocks more carefully than any preceding mineralogist, has distinguished the crust of our globe into five coats, the primitive, the transitive, the stratified, the alluvial, and the volcanic rocks. M. Brongniart seems to have in part adopted that division: but he joins together the transitive and stratified rocks, under the general appellation of *beds of sediment*, or *secondary tracts*.

In the distribution of his work, the author follows an arrangement which is sufficiently perspicuous. He divides the mineral products into five classes:—1. The combinations of oxygen with substances that are not metallic; 2. The Salts that have not a metallic base; 3. The Stones; 4. The Combustibles; and 5. The Metals. These classes again he distributes into orders, genera, and species. The salts form two orders;—those with an alkaline, and those with an earthy base. The stones are ranged under three orders;—the hard, the unctuous, and the argilloid;—and the metals are distinguished as usual into the brittle and the ductile. The numerous subdivisions are exhibited in a convenient synoptic table, which is prefixed to the body of the treatise.

It may seem rather strange to find air and water referred to the mineral kindom: but Aristotle had before set the example, in his book on *Meteors*. Oxygen enters into the composition of both; and both of them have the most extensive influence on the changes which take place on the surface of the globe. Mineral springs issue, for the most part, from the secondary rocks; especially from lime-stone and beds of schist, that contain sulphurated iron. The volcanic tracts also give rise to various kinds of fountains. It may be presumed that such waters derive their peculiar qualities from the substances through which they percolate: yet instances are not wanting of hot springs that flow from rocks even of granite or gneiss. In these cases, the water is not impregnated with saline matter: but how it derives its heat, unless from the decomposition of the materials below the solid rock, we can form no conception. Whatever be the cause, it is of the most permanent

permanent nature, since the temperature of a spring continues unvaried for many revolving centuries.

Sulphuric acid exerts such powerful attractions, that it very seldom occurs in a state uncombined. It has been lately discovered in the neighbourhood of Sienna, forming concretions like cauliflowers, in the cavities of a small volcanic hill called Zoccolino: where it is formed from the decomposition of sulphur, and is rendered solid by the sulphureous acid which it dissolves. The sulphuric acid is also found in the caverns of the island of Milo, in those near Aix in Savoy, and in several grottos of Mount Ætna.

The acid of Borax was first observed in the *lagoni*, or little lakes of Tuscany, in the form of stalactites, white, and of a soapy feel. It was afterward found abundantly on the margin of a hot spring at Sasso, near Sienna.

Sal ammoniac, or the muriate of ammonia, was formerly brought from Egypt, where it is procured by distilling the soot collected through the country; the fuel generally used there being the dung of camels and other animals which feed on the salt herbage of those arid plains. This useful article is now manufactured in various parts of Europe. In Belgium the soot is mixed with coals and clay, and moistened with a strong brine: this paste is then made up into small bricks, which are burnt in a furnace of a particular construction; and the soot now formed is put in matrasses, and finally urged to sublimation.

The sulphate of Soda is of more frequent occurrence than was supposed; being found in Austria, in Hungary, in Swisserland, and in Spain. In the lakes of Siberia, also, it is very common; and, as it parts from its solution when cold, the apothecaries of Oremberg are accustomed every autumn to make a provision of that salt from its deposits at the bottom of a lake near the Tobol.

The geognostic history of common Salt forms an interesting subject, which M. BRONGNIART treats with curious and ample detail: but we can notice only a few general points.

Mineral salt occurs in solid masses, and is then termed *sal gemmæ;* or in springs which flow more or less copiously from saline beds. These springs are always accompanied by argil, and often contain other neutral salts likewise, particularly the sulphates of lime and of soda. Salt is never found in the primitive rocks, either in a solid or a liquid form: but it occurs in the stratified or alluvial districts, and generally near the foot of the lofty primordial chains. Gypsum, or the sulphate of lime, almost constantly accompanies it. The blocks of salt appear in layers which alternate with those of grey or red clay, and are some-

times intermixed with that substance. The beds of clay themselves generally rest on gypsum, and are covered by compact bituminous limestone; and these strata inclose the wrecks of organized bodies, elephants' bones, charred wood, fossil shells, petroleum, and not unfrequently large pieces of sulphur.

Alum, the combination of sulphuric acid with aluminous earth, has been discovered to be a triple salt, and to require potash or ammonia for its crystallization. It sometimes occurs efflorescent in volcanic grottos, and is then called *plumose alum*, but is most generally the production of art. It is procured from certain kinds of friable lava, or of argillaceous schist, by calcining and lixiviating the mass. Gypsum, sulphate of iron, and other extraneous salts, are made to part from the liquor, and an alkaline ley is then added: but this process may be omitted in the case in which the mineral is roasted with pit-coal, which seems to supply the necessary portion of ammonia.—M. BRONGNIART relates, as a matter in course, that our bakers are habituated to use alum for the purpose of rendering their bread light and white: but he seems not to be aware that such a pernicious ingredient is severely proscribed by law.

Sulphate of Magnesia appears efflorescent on the surface of some stones, being formed by the operation of a double affinity. Thus the carbonate of magnesia contained in gypsum is decomposed, the sulphuric acid interchanging with the carbonic its calcareous base; while the presence of the oxyd of iron visibly favours the new combination.

Gypsum, or the sulphate of lime, betrays a confused crystallization, and is evidently posterior in its formation to the primitive rocks. It may be distinguished into three principal kinds, according to the order of time. The first and most antient is that which occurs on the Alpine heights: it contains no organic remains, is of a pure white, and has a briliant and granular texture. The gypsum of the second formation is found generally in limestone countries, on the declivity or near the foot of the hills: it has a fine close grain; its texture is often fibrous; and it appears in thin contorted layers, mixed with coloured clays: but, though accompanied by salt rocks and stinkstein, this gypsum shews no traces of organic bodies. That of the third order occurs in the plains, or on the slopes of the secondary hills; where it forms thick continuous banks, either horizontal or gently inclined. Its grain is coarse, though crystalline; it is usually blended with clay, marl, or limestone; and it often contains fragments of quadrupeds, birds, shells, and even vegetables. The beds, too, of argillaceous or calcareous marl, which divide it, inclose likewise the traces of organic bodies,

bodies. The quarries of plaster at Montmartre, on the north side of Paris, present objects that are extremely interesting to the naturalist. The gypsum of a yellowish colour there forms a conical hill, about 400 feet above the level of the sea, and rests incumbent on extensive horizontal beds of limestone, of a coarse texture, and abounding with shells. Near the summit, a friable sandstone contains impressions of shells of the genus *cerithium*; and below this occur the beds of marl, at first sandy, and then calcareous or argillaceous, and foliated. Here five or six very thin banks of shells are found, in a high state of preservation. At first, a shell similar to our oyster is dicovered; next, those of the genera *cardita*, *venus*, *tellina*, and *cerithium*, with some traces of fishes; and still nearer to the gypsum are the fossil trunks of the palm-tree. The plaster itself is divided into three principal masses, separated by beds of marl: but it is the first mass chiefly that contains the bones of tortoises, fish, quadrupeds, and birds, which have been so accurately described by the celebrated *Cuvier*.

The finer sorts of compact gypsum being semi-transparent, and capable of receiving a polish, are known to the statuaries under the name of alabaster. At Florence, the gypseous alabaster of Volterra is manufactured into elegant vases, in which a lamp being placed sheds a delicate softened lustre. The *phengites* of the antients was probably the same stone, and was employed by them in their temples to diffuse "a dim religious light."

Some kinds of limestone are of a nature so compact as to resist the penetration of acids, and to permit only a slow and feeble effervescence. These hold but a portion of magnesian earth, and shew no traces of quartz; yet they are often so hard as to be capable of striking fire from steel, and of scratching flint-glass with their angles. The scintillation with steel, commonly regarded as characteristic, affords therefore no certain indication of the silicious order of stones.

M. BRONGNIART's article respecting Statuary Marbles possesses considerable interest. The most celebrated marbles among the antients were the *Parian*, or *Lychnites*,—the *Pentheli*c, or *Cipolin*,—and that of *Carrara*, or *Luni*. The first was the most esteemed; having, with rather a coarse grain, a certain degree of transparency. It was found in the isles of Paros, Naxos, and Tenos; and the statue of the Venus de Medicis appears to be formed of it. The marble which is now termed *Cipolin* was procured from the quarries of Mount Pentheles near Athens, and was generally striped with greyish micaceous veins:—of this was made the celebrated Torsus of Hercules. The Carrara marble, brought from the gulf of Genoa, is whiter than the Parian, and seems to have been preferred in the

the sequel by antient statuaries. It has a polyhedral rather than a saccharine fracture, and *Dolomieu* thinks that the famous Apollo Belvidere was chisled out of it.

A series of operations is requisite for the polishing of marbles. They are first ground wet with pounded red biscuit-ware, and reddish argillaceous sand: they are then rubbed hard with a block of lead, sprinkled beneath with fresh emery-dust, kept moistened with water; and, lastly, they are smoothed by being rubbed strongly with lead-filings mixed with a third part of alum; the finish being given by an application of putty. Instead of putty, however, calcined sheep's bones, mixed up with the due proportion of alum, are used for polishing white marbles.

The process of the burning of Lime has not been accurately studied. From ordinary principles, we might expect that the carbonic gas would be discharged almost as soon as its basis was brought up to the requisite degree of heat; and such is nearly the case in the vaporization of water and other liquids, which would be instantaneous but for the great expenditure of heat that it occasions: but the calcination of limestone requires a very slow and lengthened process. By communicating an expansive force to the latent gas, the application of fire enables it to surmount the attraction of its basis. The external crust of the stone is first denuded of its gas; in that state, it draws, by its superior attraction, a new supply from the interior mass; and the gaseous ingredient is thus transferred from the centre of the mass, by a series of successive combinations, till it finally makes its escape from the surface. The presence of moisture greatly promotes the operation; the vapour attracting strongly the gas, while it communicates, at the same time, its prodigious distending force. It is apparently for this reason that wet stones are most easily converted into lime, and that it is even found advantageous, in some cases, to sprinkle them with water.

Derbyshire spar, or lime united to the fluoric acid, has not been observed to contain organic remains: but *Morichini* has recently discovered it in the enamel of fossil elephants' teeth, in which it is combined with phosphate of lime and gelatine.

Having discussed the saline bodies, M. Brongniart proceeds, under the third class, to consider Stones properly so called. Some of them are remarkably sonorous, and are therefore employed by the Chinese to form a kind of musical instruments. They consist chiefly of agates, trapps, and black marbles. Certain stones of a coarse granular texture are found to possess a singular degree of flexibility; which they seem to acquire from long exposure to the impression of the weather, or even from the artificial process effected by the continual action of a slow and gentle fire. The lapidious cement being dissolved,

solved, or the moisture expelled from the interstices of the stone, the grosser particles have then room for those minute internal displacements, which flexure of necessity requires.

Of the hard stones, Quartz properly takes the lead. It never alone forms either mountains or even large beds, but occurs disseminated among the primitive rocks, or running through them in extensive veins; and, sometimes, these veins contain cavities, the sides of which are lined with elegant crystals. Quartz occurs also, but in very small quantities, in the stratified districts, and occasionally forms thin seams, or narrow veins in the schistose mountains. It is often transported to great distances in rounded or angular fragments, and thus composes the principal collections of sand. It also appears frequently penetrated by other mineral substances. The sulphate of barytes gives it a milky hue, and actinolite communicates to it a soft green colour. It is sometimes transpierced by acicular crystals of titanium and antimony; and, when these needles are eroded, the quartz presents a honey-comb appearance.—Felspar, garnet, mica, fluor, tin, specular iron, and sulphurated arsenic, are often inclosed in masses of quartz; chlorite gives it an opaque deep green; and asbestos communicates iridescent tints and a fibrous texture. Silver and native gold, in plates or fine twisted filaments, divide the siliceous crystals. Quartz is found sometimes to contain air-bubbles, or drops of bitumen, of anthracite, or even of water; a fact which seems utterly to preclude the supposition of its being formed by the action of fire. This argument is farther corroborated by the circumstance that, though quartz itself never betrays the vestiges of organized bodies, it often occurs filling up the tissue of fossil wood.

Hydrophane is a species of opal, or chalcedony, which, as its name implies, becomes transparent on being soaked in water. At the same time that it imbibes the water, it disengages bubbles of air, for which it seems to have less attraction: but the transparency is evidently not produced by the mere repletion of its pores; since wet sand still remains opaque. A real chemical action takes place, and a new combination results; in which, however, the character of the basis predominates. The transparency communicated by immersion to the hydrophane is perfectly analogous to the effect of wetting linen or bibulous paper; which may be shewn to be always accompanied by a contraction of volume and an extrication of heat. The water, by its union, gives a different arrangement to constituent particles, and communicates, in some degree, its own translucid quality.

To

To explain the origin of Flint is one of the most difficult problems in geology. It occurs in lumps, most irregular and fantastic, forming interrupted but parallel beds in the chalk hills. It appears to shade away into its calcareous matrix; and, if exposed to the weather, it soon becomes covered with a white crust. The strange opinion, however, that chalk is really transmuted into the substance of flint cannot be entertained for a moment. The alteration which flint undergoes, from the impression of air and humidity, is owing evidently to the abstraction of some fugitive, perhaps glutinous, principle; and the action of fire produces a similar effect, converting the flint into a white friable substance. The prevailing hypothesis among geologists, at present, is that flint is formed by infiltration; an idea which seems liable to formidable objections; though some closer examination may perhaps obviate them. We may suppose that the place of the flint was formerly occupied by beds of marine animals,—the *molluscæ*, the *testaceæ*, and the *zoophites*,—and that their substance attracted and fixed the silicious matter which percolated from above: a theory which would account for the profusion of water contained in the body of flint, and for those impressions of shells, madrepores, and urchins, which it generally bears.

Jasper is distinguished from flint chiefly by its opacity. Many geologists attribute its formation to the filtering of silicious matter through beds of ferruginous clay; and it has been asserted by some observers to contain fossil shells, and traces of marine plants.

Obsidian has a vitreous appearance, much resembling enamel. It is used by the natives of Mexico and Peru for making ornaments and mirrors; and it was employed by the same people to form cutting instruments, such as knives, and even razors, of rude manufacture, but executed with astonishing rapidity.

The term *petrosilex* having received various acceptations among mineralogists, M. Brongniart has preferred to adopt the characters assigned to it by *Dolomieu*. Its fracture resembles wax, and it has the appearance of agate, only that it is fusible in the flame of a blow-pipe. It has all the properties of felspar, and decomposes likewise into porcelain clay; so that it bears the same relation to felspar that flint bears to quartz. We must observe, however, that felspar seems to derive its fusibility from the portion of potash with which it is generally combined; for the fine clay, or *kaolin*, arising from its decomposition, is found to be no longer capable of fusion.

Lazulite

Lazulite is akin to felspar, and appears from the recent experiments of *Clement* and *Desormes* to contain almost the fourth part of its weight of soda, with a small admixture of sulphur. From this analysis, an elegant explanation is given of the intricate and very laborious process of extracting, from its refractory basis, the famous *ultramarine* used by painters.

M. BRONGNIART states fairly the opposite arguments advanced by the Neptunists and the Plutonists, with regard to the formation of Basalt. Much of this celebrated dispute is no doubt verbal, and several of the difficulties that have been urged are explicable on either hypothesis: but the probabilities seem to incline to the side of the Neptunists. Basalt differs from the compact lavas, in yielding water by distillation; and it is observed to pass by imperceptible shades into other rocks, which are acknowleged to have an aqueous origin.

Of the unctuous stones, *serpentine* is the most remarkable. It is akin to mica, and contains also a large proportion of magnesian earth. The *lapis ollaris* is quite soft when it comes out of the quarry, and is capable of being turned in the lathe, and formed into vessels for culinary purposes. In Upper Eygpt it is so employed, under the name of the *stone of Baram*; and among the people of the Valais and the Grisons, it has been used from time immemorial for pots in cooking. The antients were perfectly acquainted with its distinguishing properties.

Steatite is another of the unctuous tribe. It is used in the manufacture of Worcestershire china, and serves the Arabians in their baths instead of soap. Some wretched savages are known to eat this substance, with the view of blunting the painful sensations of hunger. Such is the practice of the natives of New Caledonia, and of the inhabitants of the shores of the Oroonoko. The negroes, also, who inhabit the small islands in the mouth of the Senegal, mix their rice with a white steatite, which is soft and greasy, like butter; and these miserable people do not appear to suffer any inconvenience from indulging such a depraved appetite.

Mica, distinguished by its brilliant and flaky composition, is also classed with the unctuous stones. Its formation seems to have been coeval with that of the primitive rocks: but a substance so light and thin was easily transported; and it is now found abundantly dispersed in the secondary and alluvial beds. No mineral is indeed of such frequent occurrence, or so equally disseminated over the surface of the globe.

Of

Of the argilloid order, Clay itself holds the foremost rank. It owes its peculiar qualities to the large portion of alumine which enters into its composition. *Kaolin* is the most noted species, being used by the Chinese in the manufacture of porcelain: it is a white friable substance, containing nearly equal parts of silex and alumine; it does not easily mix with water; and it resists the action of the strongest fire. Kaolin is evidently formed by the decomposition of felspar, or of the granitic rocks in which that mineral is a principal ingredient; and it generally betrays its origin by the minute scales of mica which are found dispersed through its mass. It is the same substance with the *rotten granite* or *growan* of Cornwall, which is employed in our potteries. The kaolin lately discovered near Bayonne still retains the lamellar structure of the felspar.

In treating of clays, the author is led to give an account of the manufacture of earthen-ware, which in this country has been carried to such a high state of perfection by the ingenuity and perseverance of the late Mr. Wedgwood; and he describes, in a concise but distinct manner, the successive operations which that elegant material undergoes before it receives its finishing touch.

Marls are only variously proportioned mixtures of clay with calcareous earth. Those of a compact form, and in which the calcareous ingredient predominates, appear to be the most antient, for they contain abundantly the fossil remains of animals, the bones of quadrupeds and fishes, and the impressions of vegetables:—but the argillaceous marls are found to inclose fragments of animals that are more analogous to the present race of inhabitants of our globe.

We have extended our observations already so far, that we feel ourselves obliged to curtail the remarks which we had designed to offer on the two remaining classes of mineral bodies. The article concerning *Coal* is ably compiled. According to M. Brongniart, this combustible substance occurs only in the intermediate strata, and is found neither in the primitive rocks nor in the alluvial beds. It exhibits three principal formations. *First*, in seams alternating with these six distinct layers:—1. coarse grit-stone; 2. schist, bearing on its plates the impressions of fish, of ferns, and graniferous vegetables; 3. beds of indurated marl; 4. a sort of secondary argillaceous porphyry, containing petrified trees; 5. argillaceous iron-stone; and 6. gravel imbedded in ferruginous sand. The *second* formation occurs in basalt, through which it stretches in very thick and extensive beds. Coal of the *third* epoch pre-

sents itself in the deep horizontal fields of a compact lime-stone, which often contains fossil shells.

Respecting the origin of Coal, much geological discussion has been excited. The most ingenious supposition is, that it arose from the decomposition of the soft parts of the vast store of submerged and extinguished animals, whose fossil bones are now so widely scattered: an idea which is countenanced by the late discovery of the conversion of muscular fibre into a fatty substance, by long exposure to the action of humidity. Like every geological hypothesis, however, this supposition is liable to powerful objections. Yet careful observations intitle us to conclude that coal was nearly contemporaneous with organized bodies,—that it was once perfectly liquid and homogeneous,—and that the cause of its production must have acted at repeated intervals, but without violence or convulsion.

Of the Bitumens, naphtha is the highest; and it is very fluid, and extremely inflammable. A spring of naphtha, we are informed, was discovered in 1802, near the village of Amiano, on the confines of the territory of Genoa; which flows so copiously as to furnish a supply sufficient for lighting up the streets of that commercial city.

It is well known that Sulphur increases the inflammability of the substances with which it is joined; and on that account it is employed in the composition of gunpowder. In some cases, it can be made to take fire by mere percussion. The inhabitants of Oonalashka are accustomed to rub pieces of quartz with sulphur; and, striking the stones violently against each other, they catch the inflamed particles among dried leaves.

Nickel was long considered as a dingy semi-metal: but, in its pure state, it is now found to be white like silver, and almost as malleable. It is not apt to tarnish, is very tough, and when hammered it has a specific gravity of about 8.7. Together with cobalt, it is capable of magnetic virtue, though in a degree still inferior to that of iron.

Most of the ores of Copper occur in the stratified tracts. It has the appearance of being newer than other metals, since it cuts most of their veins, and is itself only cut by hæmatite and magnetic iron. The azure and green copper ores are found, however, in every sort of matrix; even in sand and bituminous schist. It has been generally believed that the *turquoise*, so named after the country from which it comes, owed its colour to the impregnation of malachite, or the green carbonate of copper: but that opinion is confuted by the recent analysis of *Bouillon-la-Grange*, which proves that the turquoise

is only a compound of bone with the phosphate of iron. This mineralized body is greatly prized throughout the East for sword-handles and other ornaments.

The ores of silver occur chiefly in the older stratified districts; very rarely in granite, but generally in the micaceous rocks, in hornblende, compact lime, and in certain kinds of schist. The muriate of silver would seem to be of the newest formation; for it is accompanied by organic remains, and appears always in the upper part of the veins.

Gold is one of the oldest metals, and the most generally though sparingly disseminated. It is found in granite, gneiss, and other micaceous rocks; also in hornblende, primitive trap, and compact limestone. It occurs perhaps more frequently in the alluvial tracts, intermixed in small particles with silicious, argillaceous, or ferruginous sand; in which form it is often collected in the bottoms and the bendings of rivers. Various facts concur, however, to prove that it is only abraded from the channel by the swell and rapidity of the current, and is not carried down, as has been often supposed, from the distant mountains. This auriferous sand is black or red, and consequently ferruginous. *Napione* has hence conjectured that the gold thus obtained proceeds from the decomposition of auriferous pyrites.

The remainder of the second volume, extending through about 120 pages, treats of the working of mines, of metallurgy, and the direct application of the metals: but having already transgressed our limits, we must here content ourselves with taking a very cursory glance.—The treatment of silver ores at Freyberg, by the process of amalgamation, is one of the most ingenious and scientific. The ore is very poor, not containing above one fourth *per cent.* of silver, joined to a large proportion of sulphur, with an admixture of some other metals. It is first roasted in a reverberatory furnace, with 10 *per cent.* of common salt. The sulphuric acid, now produced, decomposes the salt, and forms sulphate of soda and metallic sulphates; while the muriatic acid thus liberated combines with the silver. This roasted ore is then reduced to a fine meal; to every 100 parts of which are added 50 of mercury, 30 of water, and 6 of small iron-plates. The casks into which this mixture is put are turned round by machinery for 16 or 18 hours, till the mass has become intimately blended. The iron decomposes the muriate of silver; and this metal, joining the mercury, forms a solid amalgam which is found to contain one seventh of its weight of silver. The mercury is again separated from its amalgam by sublimation, and the silver is left nearly pure. The use of the water is to dissolve the saline compounds as fast

fast as they are formed, and thus to multiply the contact and facilitate the action of the mixture. Sulphate of soda yields some profit, being employed as a flux by the glass-makers.

It appears from the best conjectural estimates, that the quantities of precious metal annually introduced into the commerce of Europe, between the years 1790 and 1802, amounts to about 48,000 pounds weight of gold, and 2,500,000 of silver,—corresponding in value respectively to upwards of two millions and eight millions sterling. Of this accumulation, the old world supplies between a third and a fourth part of the gold, but only the twelfth part of the silver; the rest is brought from the American continent. Silver is therefore fifty times more abundant in the market than gold; and yet it maintains nearly its relative value, being only fifteen times cheaper by weight than gold. This fact is to be explained by the great waste of silver in coinage and various manufactures, together with the vast annual drain to China in return for teas and other articles.

We must not extend these notices any farther, but shall refer our curious readers to the work itself; which, we are persuaded, will amply repay their time and attention. A book, however, containing such multifarious information, is fitter perhaps for consultation than for a continued perusal: but it is admirably calculated on the whole for promoting the study of mineralogy; and the accuracy of the details is guaranteed by a constant reference to the original authorities: a very laudable and useful practice, but to which the French writers have very seldom submitted. The omissions in the treatise are few, we believe, and unimportant: but we have observed one which we shall specify. In describing the lead-mines of Great Britain, M. Brongniart has entirely forgotten those of Lead-hills in Scotland, on the confines of Dumfries-shire and Lanarkshire; which have long been deservedly regarded as objects of national importance.

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Art. IX. *Sainclair, ou la Victime des Sciences & des Arts*, &c. Sainclair, or the Victim of the Arts and Sciences, a Novel. By Madame de Genlis. 12mo. pp. 131. Paris, and re-printed for Dulau and Co. London. 1808.

As we believe it to be a circumstance without parallel, that we should be required in a single number to pay our compliments to a lady for three works produced within a very limited period; so also it gives us no common pleasure that

some of our suggestions will be more courteous than those which we have lately offered to the same fair writer. We are willing to hope that the multitude of valuable contributions hitherto made by Madame DE GENLIS to the amusement and instruction of the world, instead of announcing a speedy termination to her labors, may be taken as an earnest of farther and long continued exertions; which, in our opinion, would be most likely to insure a complete success, if they were employed in representing the more ordinary characters and events of domestic life. Her mind is of much too elevated an order to be absorbed, like a gaping populace, in contemplating the idle magnificence of court pageantry; while on the other hand it does not appear to us to possess that high, romantic, and chivalrous turn, which inspires with sentiment while it invests with probability the most extraordinary incidents and adventures scarcely credible. The species of composition, for which she is naturally best adapted, is unquestionably that of the novel, or domestic tale. It is here that her good sense and shrewdness of observation, her knowlege of the world and clear insight into human character, her easy and animated style,—full of lively turns and fortunate expressions,—and her power of affecting the reader's sensibility by pathetic scenes, most eminently qualify her to excel.

The publication before us is a pleasing, useful, and entertaining satire, though it opens with the tragical event of a young man's disappointment in his first love. It did indeed appear that the mutual inclination of the two cousins, *Sainclair* and *Clemence*, had anticipated the views of their relations, who were anxious for their marriage, and every thing flattered their hopes of future happiness. One fatal ground of dissension, however, existed between them: the modest and cultivated mind of *Sainclair* valued letters and philosophy only as they promote the comfort of society, and the pleasure of conversation; while the more aspiring imagination of the lady considered them as the means of advancing her individual reputation, and obtaining the enviable notoriety of a literary character. His blindness to her talents for poetry and music, her brother's botanical skill and his proficiency on the violin, her mother's fragments translated from the English, and her father's antiquarian researches, alienated the heart of *Clemence*; who set so high a price on literary glory, that she considered herself as acting a noble and reasonable part, in sacrificing to it her love and her engagements. In a word, she joined her destinies to those of *Versillac*, an ill-bred youth, of repulsive manners, and no attractions: but who had obtained

ed the poetical medal at the *Floral Games* lately celebrated in Languedoc, and was a distinguished composer of madrigals and enigmas in the *Almanack of the Muses.*

Sainclair, easily consoled for the loss of a mistress who could sacrifice an early attachment to so preposterous a vanity, visited Paris with a resolution to marry no woman who had arrived at distinction in the eye of the public by her talents and literary acquirements; and nothing can be more amusing than the detail of his various attempts, which are all frustrated by some unlucky discovery of a secret panting after notoriety. We select the portrait of the interesting female whose sensibility first appears to fix his wandering affections.

'*Sainclair*, already tired of Paris, went to pass a fortnight in the country, at the beginning of the spring. He there saw a young widow, who took great interest in him, and succeeded in exciting a corresponding interest in his mind. *Clotilda* (for that was her name) had a sort of celebrity which found favor in the eyes of *Sainclair*. She was quoted in his society as the woman of the greatest sensibility that ever existed. Every thing affected her; the reading of a play produced suffocation; and it was necessary to carry her out of her box from a representation of *Misanthropy* and *Repentance**. Her admiration, of whatever kind it might be, was always expressed by tears. She wept when first she saw the Apollo of Belvidere; she wept if she looked stedfastly at the moon; she wept at hearing instrumental music; and it was related of her, that, being at the opera on the first appearance of *Vestris*, she burst into tears on seeing him dance. People were astonished that, after having suffered so many strong emotions, she should have preserved her health; and that eyes, condemned to eternal tears, far from being extinguished, should still be bright. In a word, she herself described her sensibility, and spoke of her affections, with an eloquence to which a very pretty face gave charms that seduced *Sainclair*. When we are interested, we cease to examine; we contemplate: absurdities become pleasing singularities; and the most gross exaggeration appears but the exaltation of a superior mind. *Clotilda*, having lost her parents in infancy, had for a guardian and governess a half-sister, much more advanced in years than herself; her gratitude towards this sister appeared passionate; and though she neglected her very much, and never saw her, yet she always spoke of her with an ardour and a tenderness that charmed *Sainclair*. Madame *d'Olmene*, this beloved sister, was now dying of a consumption; and the feeling *Clotilda* shut her eyes so entirely to her situation, that she went into the great world, and to *fêtes* and spectacles with a perfect security. Her friends shuddered to think that she might probably hear, at a ball, of the death of this object of her liveliest affection: yet no one had the cruelty to undeceive her; and

* Anglicé, *the Stranger.*

how indeed was it possible to inform her of the truth? The physicians had pronounced the fatal sentence, and *Clotilda* could not be ignorant of it: but she persuaded herself that the physicians were entirely deceived, and she would trust only her heart and her hopes. —"What a respectable error! and what a dreadful blow she is about to receive, and how will she support it without dying!" These were the remarks made in company respecting *Clotilda*, but was this the opinion of those who said so? I think that it was not. In the world, few persons are duped by affectation, but many pretend to be deceived, in order to preserve agreeable connections, or to make their own candor admired; or perhaps through malignity, for the sake of giving others the opportunity of laughing at absurdity which they do not themselves choose to criticise. *Sainclair* alone was perfectly in earnest in his admiration of *Clotilda*: he had only studied pedantry and pretensions to *bel esprit*; in short, he had passed his life in the country, and he was in love. From these circumstances, *Clotilda*, who in every way attached so much importance to this conquest, might have achieved it at a far less expence.'

At length, it happened that a single visit detected *Clotilda* not only as a pretender to excessive sensibility, but in the still more objectionable character of a candidate for public applause. The very day after she heard of the death of the beloved sister, while assuming the torpid dejection of intolerable anguish, her admirer discovered that she was laboring with her instructor in painting, on a picture which was destined for exhibition in the saloon of the arts. Her conduct was still more unpardonable, as she had the inhumanity of compelling a little boy in her service (*petit jokey*) to sit to her in the severest weather, with a dangerous cold produced by wearing the airy vestments of a *zephyr* or a *love*. The child complained to *Sainclair*; —"No *love* can continue in my mistress's service."—"I am of your opinion," said *Sainclair*, and took leave of his fair deceiver with contempt and anger.

Once more, he is captivated by the beauty, the modesty, and the obscurity of *Albina de Monclar*. It is not, indeed, without some alarm that he discovers her to be possessed of talents and accomplishments; to which, however, he is reconciled by the good sense that could keep them concealed. Their union took place under the most pleasing auspices, three days before the first representation of an opera, the joint production of *Clemence* and her husband. He had written the poetry, she set it to music, and her father prepared it for publication, by composing a preliminary discourse full of erudition, to be placed at the head of the work.—As it is a prescriptive rule in novels and tales, that the happiness of the author's favorites is never complete unless they witness the mortification of their

adversaries, the newly married couple are present at the theatre, when this unfortunate piece undergoes a most humiliating sentence of condemnation. The whole family are made miserable by this event; each of the contributors to the work charges its failure on the stupidity of his coadjutors; and their expectations of literary renown are converted into the bitterest disappointment.

We hope that much good may be effected by this amusing and playful tale; which manifests that, however the female mind may be adorned and improved by the possession of literary talents, the studious exhibition of them and the love of notoriety are wholly inconsistent with the delicacy, the dignity, the usefulness, and the attraction of the female character. We shall be understood at once when we say that *Sainclair* may be considered as an *Anti-Corinne*.

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Art. X. *Le Duc de Lauzun*, &c.; *i.e.* The Duke *de Lauzun*, a Sequel to the History of the Duchess *de la Valliere*. By Madame de Genlis. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. Reprinted for Colburn, London. 1808.

The public is here presented with another sequel to the Memoirs of the Duchess *de la Valliere* *; with whose history, however, that of the Duke *de Lauzun* has no farther connection than that both lived at the same era, and were placed in conspicuous stations in the same court by the favour of an unprincipled monarch, of whose caprice and despotism they both became the victims. Except from these circumstances of resemblance in their destiny, we see not the shadow of a reason for terming the one of these novels a sequel to the other. As well might an English romancer, by employing the word *sequel*, incorporate the life of the Duke of Ormond, or of Lord Chancellor Clarendon, with that of their interesting, benevolent, and frail, but finally repentant contemporary, Mrs. Ellen Gwynn.

We have had frequent occasion to protest against the union of history and fable, especially in regard to recent events, which Madame de Genlis has succeeded in rendering popular. Not only is the memory confused and misled, but the mind, habituated to amusement where it ought only to seek instruction, is taught to prefer lively anecdotes to great events; and, among anecdotes, to dwell on those that are interesting and *piquant*, much more than to consider such as are true and important.

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* See Rev. Vol. xlv. N. S. p. 211. and Vol. l. p. 509.

No charm is more irresistible to ordinary minds, than the idea of being admitted to the familiarity of princes and courtiers: the splendour of royalty throws a false lustre over actions that are either contemptible or blame-worthy; and even the highest examples of moral and intellectual excellence are deemed valuable in so far as they may accidentally procure the favour of a king, or the smiles of a king's mistress. Thus, though M. *de Lauzun* was honourably distinguished from the herd of friends and rivals who peopled the court of Louis, by his military science and valuable services, as well as by the fearless independence of his mind and the singularity of his humour, he is much less celebrated for his personal qualities than because he held for some time the *situation* of favourite. To this circumstance, in a great degree, but principally to his good fortune in captivating the affections of Mademoiselle *de Montpensier*, the nearest female relative of Louis XIV., he is certainly indebted for the honour of having his fame recorded above a century after his death, in a publication which derives its title from his name. The glory of so brilliant a conquest is as dazzling now as it was at the period of its accomplishment; when the intended nuptials threw the good taste of Madame *de Sevigné* so wholly off its guard, as to draw from her the description that is quoted in the preface to these memoirs.

The illustrious attachment to which we here refer forms the main incident, or more properly the whole story, of the present work. If it was rather calculated to flatter the pride than to promote the happiness of the Duke, if the lady was more than ten years older than her spouse, if her temper was imperious, and her mind fully impressed with the advantage which she derived from the superiority of her rank, these very circumstances added to the glory of a victory, which reduced her to the nesessity of suing for the Duke's affections, and throwing herself on his mercy. No human being could fail to be intoxicated by the triumph: but *De Lauzun* resolved not to risk his success, by displaying too much impatience to reap the fruit of it; and he prudently followed the advice of his last paramour, then the King's mistress, Madame *de Montespan*, in feigning a backwardness to meet the advances of Mademoiselle, and a difficulty in believing it possible that so exalted an honour could be seriously intended for him. Who would imagine that such a scheme could fail, at the very moment of execution?—a scheme so wisely laid, so dexterously conducted, so near a prosperous accomplishment! The Duke had, indeed, the less reason for wondering at the King's breach of promise, and refusal to permit the marriage to which he had solemnly given a public sanction, because it was not

the

the first time of his suffering from a violation of the royal honour: but it was natural for him to be severely afflicted; and though Louis softened the severity of his prohibition by permitting a private union, this was a most inadequate consolation for the loss of the illustrious rank which he had been authorised to expect, an immediate alliance with the throne, and the dukedom of *Montpensier*. His fair biographer observes that he had taken considerable pains, in private, to prepare himself for the new character which he was on the point of assuming, by practising such manners and deportment as would have suited his elevation. This little trait is no doubt historical, and pleases us the more as it proves the intimate knowlege of human nature possessed by our immortal Shakspeare; for *De Lauzun*, in his provident rehearsal of the airs of state, is an exact counterpart to the ambitious *maitre d'hôtel* in Twelfth Night, who fancied himself the fortunate object of his lady's love. "Having been three months married to her, (says Malvolio,) sitting in my state, calling my officers about me, in my branched velvet gown, having come down from a day-bed, where I have left Olivia sleeping,—and then to have the humour of state; and, after a demure travel of regard, telling them I know my place, as I would they should do theirs,—to ask for my kinsman Toby. Seven of my people, with an obedient start, make out for him: I frown the while, and perchance wind up my watch, or play with some rich jewel. Toby approaches, curtsies there to me. I extend my hand to him thus, quenching my familiar smile with an austere regard of controul, saying, Cousin Toby," &c.

Poor Malvolio's confinement as a lunatic, however, bears no proportion to the long imprisonment inflicted on the Duke *de Lauzun* in the fortress of Pignerol, as a punishment for adopting the suggestion of his royal Master, and privately becoming the husband of Mademoiselle. By this dishonourable and atrocious sentence, he was excluded from society for ten years; during which it does not appear that his high-born helpmate took much interest in his situation, since she refused to purchase his liberty, by settling a part of her domains on the natural sons of his Majesty by Madame *de Montespan*. On his liberation, instead of returning to the embraces of a princess who must then have approached the age of fifty, he was directed by some mysterious instinct of love to a lady who had been deeply enamoured of him, and designed for his wife, but whom he had sacrificed to another attachment. This lady was now married, and the Duke was fortunate enough to find her in a sequestered wood, at the moment when she was expecting her husband's arrival from the army. After having indemnified himself, in

her company, for his long seclusion from the world, he took his leave; and, cautiously avoiding all future opportunities of intercourse with the exalted character who had honoured him with her hand, he passed over into England, where he resided many years, in a kind of honourable exile. At the time of our Revolution in 1688, he was the person chosen to escort the Queen in safety from the dangers which appeared to threaten her, to Paris, where she was received with hospitality, and he was again admitted to some portion of the royal favour.

Thus ends this story; which is so deficient in plot and incident, and in every necessary ingredient for forming an interesting novel, that we are convinced it must have been composed with some other view than that of amusing the reader as a narrative of events, whether historical or fictitious. Indeed, the author herself has more than once hinted a desire to polish the present manners of her countrymen, by assimilating them to those of the age of gallantry and refinement to which she has devoted so much of her attention. *Napoleon* may be prompted, as well by policy as vanity, to aim at a competition with the last distinguished character among the monarchs of the Bourbon race; whom he unfortunately too much resembles in the skill and celerity of his military movements, in the vastness of his projects, and in the multitude of his successes. Would to God that we could complete the parallel of circumstances, by pointing out a William, a Marlborough, and an Eugene, opposed to his designs, and watchful of his manœuvres! It is probable, however, that the great French conquerors have not been more intent on gratifying their ambition by the augmentation of territory and the subjugation of states, than on indulging their pride and securing their power by the applause and loyalty of their subjects. The sentiment of absolute devotion to the royal will was never more openly avowed under the reign of a *grand monarque*, than it is at the present moment. The volumes before us are full of *divine right*; and the individual invested with sovereign power on earth is repeatedly extolled as the representative of Heaven!

Persons of all ranks in France appear anxious to outvie each other in expressing such opinions as these: but the republican rudeness, it should seem, has produced a change very unfavourable to refinement and courtesy of *manners*; and the contrast between those which existed in the time of the kings, and their present state, is sketched by Madame DE GENLIS in a style of animated satire. It is certainly probable, from the nature of things, that licentiousness and profligacy prevail at present in France to a great degree: but we wish to call the attention of our readers to the remedy which is proposed for the moral

evils

evils that may affect the state of society in that country, by so grave and instructive a writer as Madame DE GENLIS. She recommends a complete recurrence to the system which gave so much elegance and brilliancy to the court of Louis the Fourteenth. What that system was, we shall shortly state, as it is to be collected from the very favourable descriptions of its panegyrist and admirer in the work before us.

The Duke *de Lauzun* first made his appearance at court at the period of the marriage of Louis with an amiable princess of the royal family of Spain; and scarcely did the joyous cavalcade return to Paris, when the King devoted himself to the blooming innocence of the young *de la Valliere*. M. *de Lauzun*, who was soon distinguished by the esteem of his Master, was long in doubt as to which of the beauties who daily surrounded him should be allowed to fix his affection: but the wife of the Prince *de Monaco* at last prevailed over every rival. This lady had a double claim to his regard, which was founded not only on her own personal attractions, but also on the pure and virtuous friendship that subsisted between *de Lauzun* and the Comte *de Guiche, her brother*. (Of this brother, we may observe, *en passant*, that he became the regular and admitted lover of *Madame*, the sister-in-law and mistress of the king, who afterward banished the Count from a motive of jealousy.) A triumph was accomplished, without much difficulty, over the virtue of the Princess *de Monaco*, with whom he maintained a long continued intercourse, which he inexcusably betrayed to the king. Louis, equally ready to improve his advantages in love and in war, contrived to estrange her from his favourite, and succeeded to his place in her affections. The deserted lover, who narrowly escaped the curse of being an eye-witness to her perfidy, soon consoled himself in the arms of the wife of M. *de Montespan*; and if the true test of friendship be the similarity of taste and inclination, (*idem velle atque idem nolle*,) then we must be compelled to acknowlege that the friendship of the King for the courtier was sincere and fervent indeed, since he followed his example a second time, and attached himself to Madame *de Montespan* with as much ardour as he had sought the embraces of Madame *de Monaco*. To his new paramour, the monarch continued for so many years to shew a decided preference, that we may, perhaps, account for his constancy by the absence and confinement of the man, who had tempted him to wander by the varied delicacies that he had pointed out and provided for the gratification of the royal palate; and the want of Madame *de Montespan*'s exertions in favour of her old flame may be naturally ascribed to policy, rather than to ingratitude or resentment.

Now

Now let the reader figure to himself a *petit souper*, attended by the following eight persons: the King and the Queen, Monsieur and Madame, the Comte *de Guiche* and his sister, Madame *de Montespan*, and the Duke *de Lauzun*. Let him cast his eye over the foregoing paragraph, observe the various delicate and complex relations in which these several persons stood to one another, reflect on the sensations with which they must all have eyed their neighbours, and admire the extraordinary *refinement of manners* that distinguished the court of Louis! Perhaps we shall only betray our own ignorance of high life, by expressing an opinion that similar habits are not very often to be found among the superior orders in our own country: but we apprehend, for the honour of *English refinement*, that there would be no difficulty in pointing out a parallel to this most polished state of society, in many kitchens and servants' halls, belonging to the noble mansions which adorn the squares of London.

If, then, we may no more relish the acerbities of republican costume than Madame DE GENLIS, yet we cannot take refuge from them in the *haut-ton* (not *high-toned*) morality which she seems to prefer; and we must still fix our affections and our hopes on some happy medium between these two extremes.

ART. XI. *Le Siege de la Rochelle*, &c. &c. *i. e.* The Siege of La Rochelle, or Misfortune and Conscience, by Madame DE GENLIS. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris; reprinted in London for Colburn (Price 12s. Sewed.) 1808.

OF this third effusion of Mad. DE GENLIS's fertile pen, in which we expected to find nothing but characters and events notorious in the civil wars that long divided France between Catholics and Hugonots, we were agreeably surprised to discover that the title and about twenty additional pages formed the whole historical portion. Instead of implicating the subject of the story, the title only fixes the epoch at which it is supposed to have taken place; and instead of being introduced to the councils of ministers and party-leaders, and detecting the secrets of camps and cabinets, we are presented with a wild and extravagant romance, which is devoted to the unmerited sufferings, the various adventures, and the extraordinary destiny, of a beautiful and persecuted female.

Clara de Montalban was betrothed to *Valmore*, a rich and amiable widower of high rank, who had an only son by his former marriage. His estates were so settled, that the greater

greater part of them was destined to belong to the young Julius; whose father was consequently unable to provide, as amply as he would have wished, for his intended second wife. The father of *Clara*, a remorseless mercenary man, whose individual interests were considerably affected by this circumstance, formed the horrid project of murdering the child, and accidentally carried it into effect at such a time and in such a situation, that the suspicion fell entirely on his innocent and unhappy daughter. Without detailing the circumstantial evidence which appeared to amount to proof positive against her, it is enough to state that the judges, before whom she was tried, considered themselves as bound to condemn her to an ignominious death. The monster *Montalban* had the audacity to upbraid her with the crime, though she had the power of bringing it home against him, if filial piety had not prevented her from ransoming herself by the sacrifice of her unworthy father. *Valmore*, who, notwithstanding his sorrow and indignation, continued still to feel a warm affection towards her, and had rescued her from the fury of the populace when the bloody deed was first discovered, succeeded in procuring a pardon for her, on condition of her being confined for life in a penitentiary convent, the asylum of vice and infamy. In this miserable abode, her mind was sustained by a sense of duty, and the exhortations of her confessor; who was alone of all mankind convinced of her innocence and the guilt of *Montalban* though he approved too highly of her resolution of screening her father, to denounce the real criminal.

When the consolations of religion and the force of habit had in some degree reconciled her to this mode of life, she suddenly received a dreadful order to place herself under the protection of her father, who designed to carry her to his lonely castle on the banks of the Rhone; and she had scarcely time to write a short billet to father *Arsene*, when *Montalban*'s servant, a phlegmatic German who could speak no French, arrived, and conveyed her to the place of her imprisonment, which she was firmly persuaded would prove also the scene of her speedy death. Her father, she understood, would follow after a short delay. On the second night of her solitary and alarming residence in this dismantled castle,

'Exactly at ten o'clock, she distinctly heard a coach enter one of the courts of the castle, and immediately an extraordinary bustle throughout the house,—a climbing of stair-cases, an opening of doors with noise, and a walking in all the galleries. "Oh!" exclaimed *Clara*, "this time it is not an illusion; he arrives, it is he." Half an hour afterward,

Frikmann appeared: he seemed agitated, and nothing could be more striking than a trace of emotion on his naturally cold countenance. He approached *Clara*, took her hand, and dragged her along. *Clara*, frightened, opposed resistance, and *Frickmann* prepared to carry her off by force. Not wishing that a man should seize her by the arm, she determined to follow him. This movement of modesty and dignity restored her strength, for all the springs of the soul have a marvellous connection with one another. She allowed herself to be guided, persuaded that she was led to her death. He made her descend a stair case, and brought her into the great apartment of the castle, that of the master, where he shut her in. Her blood froze in her veins, on finding herself in this apartment, where she ought to have found full protection, and where she every moment expected the appearance of her murderer. *Frikmann* re-entered, and gave her a sign to follow him. "It is done then!" said *Clara*, with a suffocated voice; "O my God, take pity on the murderer and the victim!" She could say no more; the speech expired on her discoloured lips; and, without losing perception, she fell into a state of annihilation and sinking, which prevented her either from walking or supporting herself on her feet. *Frikmann* gave her his arm, or rather carried her, and hurried out of the apartment. After having passed three large rooms, he made her cross a long, narrow, and dark corridor, when they descended a small secret stair-case, and found themselves on a terrace. There *Clara* distinctly heard the howling of the waves of the Rhone, which was greatly agitated at that moment. "At length then I know," she said inwardly (for she could not articulate a word) "I know the manner of death to which I am doomed! I am to be plunged into the stream!"—The moon, concealed by clouds, gave no light.... The whistling of the wind, the tumultuous roar of the waters, menacing thunder rolling unceasingly at a distance, and the profound darkness, rendered more striking by the rapid flashes of lightning, all appeared to the eyes of *Clara* in unison with the horror of her thoughts. It seemed to her that all nature revolted at a crime which violated all her laws. Suddenly, *Frikmann* stopped; and in a strong and gloomy voice, he said in German five or six words which were repeated by the echoes of both the shores. A minute afterward, a whistle was three times sounded; and *Frikmann*, opening a door, found himself on the bank. He proceeded about thirty steps, along the shore: then a dazzling flash of lightning discovered to *Clara* a boat close to her, in which was a man alone, wrapped in a mantle that entirely concealed his figure. "'Tis he!" said *Clara* to herself, shuddering. She saw him! she knew him! she already felt the deadly blow; for she believed that she should be poignarded, and then plunged into the river. Her hair rose on her head. *Frikmann* placed her almost dying in the arms of this man, and fled with rapidity. *Clara*, motionless and frozen, voluntarily shut her eyes, that she might not once see the assassin. Her shrinking heart had no longer the power to beat; she ceased to breathe, yet she preserved sensation and consciousness. She remained thus a moment suspended between life and death; when, on a sudden, oh surprise! oh inexpressible extasy!—she felt the arms which supported

ported her gently pressing her! She heard sighs and groans! It is no mistake—tears are shed upon her! O God! can the murderer of Julius, the unnatural father who so sacrificed his daughter, can he be capable of an emotion of pity? Does outraged nature reclaim her rights, and will she triumph over so much barbarity?—

'Meanwhile, the clouds which concealed the moon dispersed, and her mild light revived; the wind was hushed, and the violent tossing of the boat fastened to the bank was moderated; at this instant, the arms which supported *Clara* lifted her and placed her on a seat, and she found herself opposite to the object of her melancholy fears.—*Clara* raised towards him a sad and timid eye: but scarcely had she perceived him, when she recovered all her faculties and all her sensibility, and, prostrating herself, exclaimed with transport not to be described, "O my deliverer!" She recognised her venerable friend, and embraced the knees of Father *Arsene*.'

Her worthy Confessor now conveyed her to a place of safety at a farm-house near Rochelle, which became the head quarters of the General who commanded the besieging army. This General was *Valmore*; who, though he could not see her face, which she had the precaution to keep constantly veiled, was reminded of his former love and sorrow by her figure and appearance. He passed the night in a room divided from her only by a thin partition; and she had the melancholy satisfaction of hearing him express those feelings of an unextinguished affection, which she could never be permitted to return, while labouring under the load of infamy that had been heaped on her. Concealment becoming daily more difficult, she prevailed on Father *Arsene* to change her retreat for the house of an aged widow in the capital of one of the German electorates; where she was accidentally introduced to the Elector's daughter, and entirely won her confidence and affection. This amiable princess, whose spirits were depressed by a secret affliction, opened her whole heart to her young favorite, and related her melancholy history. She had been betrayed into a private marriage with one of her father's ministers, who treated her with coldness, and appeared to have lost all affection for her.—Here, the suspense of the story is in a great measure destroyed, for the reader sees at once that *Clara* is the daughter of the princess. Her father, *Rosenberg*, who at an early age had intrusted her to *Montalban*, returned about this time; and having been convinced that she was guilty of the murder, he threatened her with immediate detection and exposure unless she left the place. She returned, therefore, to her refuge near Rochelle; where, after various adventures, which are not always of the most probable kind, her innocence was manifested to the world; *Montalban* died confessing his guilt; *Valmore* was united to his beloved

Clara;

Clara; and *Rosenberg* (who had very fortunately brought some German auxiliaries to the assistance of the besieged Hugonots) blessed their auspicious marriage.

This story, though very striking in particular scenes, is tedious and unequal; and it is eked out by a number of episodical narratives which neither assist the progress of the main argument, nor have much intrinsic merit. We would not rashly charge Madame De G. with descending to the arts of book making: but really the stories of the hermit and the old woman answer no purpose besides that of swelling the work. The latter, however, is introduced by a description of a maritime village, so lively, original, and picturesque, that our readers will probably not be displeased by seeing it translated:

'The mixture of rustic manners and maritime toils gives to this village a singular and striking aspect. A person might find there in families a wonderful store of knowlege gained from experience and tradition, united to all the prejudices of ignorance and all the simplicity of a country village. The interior of almost all the houses was adorned with the productions of India or the ocean; and they were at once decorations and trophies, which attested long voyages and perilous navigations. There the same hands were often employed in constructing vessels and fabricating ploughs; and the men, divided into two classes, offered, in their mode of life, on the one hand the picture of temerity, boldness, and all the agitations produced by ambition and curiosity; on the other, the affecting image of innocence and peace, the happy fruits of moderation and a tranquil life.'

If we were right in the conjecture which we threw out in the last article, respecting Madame de Genlis' wish to remodel the present *manners* of France by those of former times, we think that the publication before us exhibits a similar approximation to the *ancien regime* on the subject of *religion*. Every opportunity is taken to justify the system of convents and monasteries, and to deny the existence of those enormities with which they have been often charged. The worship of images is mentioned with a degree of awe and veneration, greater, we apprehend, than any judicious Catholic divine of the present day would express on the subject; and the fervent prayers of *Clara* are more than once rewarded by distinct revelations from heaven. We have also too many providential interferences, and too many quotations from the scriptures. A romance is the worst possible vehicle for *onction*; —a word of extensive and mysterious signification, which has been very imperfectly rendered by our common term *Cant*.

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ART. XII. *Récherches Arithmétiques*, &c.; *i. e.* Arithmetical Researches, by M. CH. FR. GAUSS, of Brunswick; translated (into French) by *A. C. M. Poullet Delisle*, Professor of Mathematics in the Lyceum of Orleans. 4to. Paris. 1807. Imported by De Boffe; London. Price 1l. 10s. sewed.

OUR English mathematical readers may feel some degree of surprise, when they are told that the *Arithmetical* Researches of M. GAUSS occupy 500 quarto pages: or they will affirm that matters, not properly belonging to arithmetic, are forced within the compass and bounds of the same volume. Indeed, we were almost induced to form this latter opinion, when, as is the preparatory custom of most readers with a new book, turning over the leaves, we found in the latter section a method and plan for geometrically inscribing in a circle, polygons of seventeen and of a greater number of equal sides. —These *arithmetical* researches, however, extend far beyond the ordinary and simple combination of number and number; and they belong to a species of arithmetic which M. GAUSS has called, and not improperly, *transcendental arithmetic*: that which treats not of the artificial combinations, but of the real and essential properties of number; which represents numbers by general symbols, and expresses in formulæ of symbols the properties of numbers. That we may not delude our readers with general description, we add that to this arithmetic belong those researches with which *Lagrange* has enriched the algebra of *Euler*, and those researches of *Euler* which are contained in the New Commentaries of Petersburg * and in the Petersburg Acts.

Buchet de Meziriac and *Fermat*, among modern mathematicians, may be regarded as having laid the foundations of transcendental arithmetic. The many curious results announced by the latter excited the attention of *Euler*, and produced those valuable memoirs which are inserted in the seventh, eighth, and eighteenth volumes of the New Commentaries of Petersburg: for *Fermat* gave results, and with-held the investigations, although from his own account, and according to *Euler's* opinion†, he was in possession of them.

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* *Novi Comm.* tom. VII. p. 49.; tom. VIII. p. 64. 74.; tom. XVIII. p. 85.

† "*Magna hujusmodi theorematum copia a Fermatio relicta habeatur, quorum demonstrationes maximam partem se invenisse affirmavit, quas cum ejus scriptis interiisse in eximium hujus scientiæ detrimentum non parum est dolendum.*"—*Novi Comm.* VIII. 75.

"*Interim tamen fateri cogor, in hâc de natura numerorum theoriâ plurima etiamnum desiderari atque Fermatii demonstrationes deperditas sine dubio multo profundiores speculationes in se esse complexas.*" *p.* 127.

We

We must now mention a book which partly the obstructed communication with the continent and partly some oversight of our own have prevented us from obtaining, we mean *Legendre's* work on the theory of numbers. From various accounts, and particularly from the testimony of M. Gauss, that performance was, at the time of its publication, the most complete thzt had appeared respecting transcendental Arithmetic. Since M. Gauss is acquainted with its contents, and purposes to exhibit and demonstrate all that is known on its subject, we may presume that M. *Legendre's* theorems are contained in the volume before us. Indeed, we know that the present writer has pushed his researches farther than the French mathematician; since in a late publication *Legendre* mentions a curious proposition relative to the inscription of equilateral polygons in a circle, and for the proof of it refers to these 'Arithmetical Researches.'—According to his own account, however, M. Gauss entered on these inquiries unacquainted with the work of *Legendre*, or indeed with the discoveries of any of his predecessors. In 1795, he says, he began to apply himself to these speculations, totally unapprized of what had been done, and debarred of the assistance which might be derived from the writings of modern mathematicians. By chance, he discovered an important arithmetical truth, very curious as an independent fact, but which, there was reason to suspect, was connected with other more important truths. He strenuously laboured to obtain its demonstration, and the principles on which it was founded. Success crowned his labours and wishes; and, attracted by the nature of the inquiry, one truth led to another, so that the greater part of his first four sections was completed before he had seen the labours of other mathematicians on the same subject. Perusing then these productions, he perceived that he had meditated, long and much, in order to find out that which had been already discovered: but, animated with fresh ardour, he pursued his arithmetical researches; and the fruits of them are the 5th, 6th, and 7th sections of the present volume.

'Some time afterward, (says the author) I asked advice concerning a project which I had formed for publishing the result of my investigations; and in compliance with the wishes of several persons, I suffered myself to be persuaded not to suppress my original researches, the more willingly, because no work then existed in which could be found collectively the labours of former mathematicians, that had been scattered through the memoirs of different academies. Add to this, they contained several original researches due to me; some presented in a mode of demonstration peculiar to me; and, finally, they were so connected the one with the other, and

and with those that followed, that it would have been very difficult to explain new matter without resuming other matter from its beginning.

'In this interval appeared an excellent production of a man who had already rendered great services to transcendental arithmetic, (*Essay on the Theory of Numbers*, by *Legendre*,) in which he not only collected and arranged all that had then appeared on the subject, but added several things of his own invention. As this publication reached me too late, and when the greater part of my book was printed, I have been able to make mention of it only in those places in which the analogy of their contents gave me occasion. The additions contain only some observations which it appeared to me necessary to place in that position; and I trust that his liberality and frankness will cause them to be favorably interpreted.'

M. Gauss begins with new names and new signs. If a number a divides the difference of b and c, then b and c are said to be congruous (*congrus*) according to a, which is called the modulus. The sign appropriate to this congruity is $\equiv$, so that, in this new symbolical language,

$$b \equiv c \text{ (modulus } a\text{)}.$$

The numbers b and c are called residues, (*residus*,) b the residue of c, and c the residue of b, to the modulus a. For instance, -16 and 9 are congruous to the modulus 5; or, symbolically,

$$-16 \equiv 9 \text{ (mod. } 5\text{)}.$$

Of the infinite variety of residues which a number may have, is one which M. Gauss calls the *minimum residue*: thus the minimum residue of 81 to a modulus 17 is 13: for of the progression of the numbers

$$0, 1, 2, 3 \text{ — — — } 16,$$

13 is the first number which is congruent to 81.

Again, to modulus 19, the minima residues of 32, 512, are 13 and 18, since $\frac{32-13}{19} = 1$ and $\frac{512-18}{19} = 27$.

It is clear that we obtain these minima residues by dividing the number by the modulus; and the positive remainder, less than the modulus, is the minimum residue. Here we cannot forbear expressing our wish that M. Gauss had not been tempted into the invention of new names and new signs: for, as far as our experience goes, the formation and employment of them in this work have certainly not elucidated the reasonings, and very slightly abridged them. Indeed, the mental labour of the reader (and that is an object which an

author ought to consult) is rendered greater: not because these new names and new signs are difficult of explanation, but because they are *not familiar:* so that, besides the usual impediments of abstruse mathematical processes, the author has contrived to add these artificial impediments; and indeed, in the conduct and explanation of his processes, he seldom consults the ease of his reader.—The signs too, as we have said, scarcely abridge demonstration; and they form the foundation of no great superstructure of notation and of analytical language. *Euler*, without their aid, has treated of the same subjects; and, in our explanation of some of M. Gauss's researches, we hope to be able to render them more clear and intelligible without the signs, than they appear with them in this book.

In the first section, the author establishes some easy theorems, and applies them to certain known properties of numbers: thus, he demonstrates that an equation, as $x^3 - 8x + 6$, cannot have a rational root: that if a, b, c, &c. be the digits of a number, $a + 10b + 100c +$ &c. is divisible by 9, if $a + b + c$ &c. be divisible.—In the next section, he treats of matters which so much engaged the attention of *Euler*, intitling his section, *Des Residus de Puissances.*—If p be a prime number and a a number not divisible by p, then $\frac{a^{p-1} - 1}{p}$ is divisible by p:

this, in fact, was *Fermat*'s theorem, (p. 163, *Varia Opera, Tolosæ*, 1679,) and was demonstrated, if we recollect rightly, in three ways by *Euler:* two demonstrations he certainly gave, for they are now before us; and this theorem, with the desire of demonstrating it, having led him into many researches of a similar nature, he printed a memoir in *Novi Comm.* tom. VIII. in which he extended *Fermat*'s theorem. M. Gauss, in his peculiar symbols, thus states it:

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1. \text{ (modulus } p).$$

Of this curious property, our countryman Waring has given two demonstrations in his *Meditationes Algebraicæ*, p. 355. Since

$$(a \quad 1)^p = a^p + p a^{p-1} + \text{\&c.} + 1,$$

and since each term, excepting the first and last, is divisible by p, $\frac{(a+1)^p}{p}$ has the same remainder as $a^p + 1$.

Let $a = 1$, then 2^p and 2 divided by p leave the same remainder; $\therefore 2^p + 1$ and $2 + 1$ divided by p leave the same remainder.

Let

Let $a = 2$, then 3^p and $2^p + 1$, and consequently 3, divided by p, leave the same remainder; and $\therefore$ $3^p + 1$ and $3 + 1$ or 4 divided by p leave the same remainder. Similarly, putting $a = 3$, 4, &c. we may prove that a^p and a divided by p leave the same remainder: hence $\frac{a^p}{p} = q + \frac{r}{p}$

and $\frac{a}{p} = q' + \frac{r}{p}$.

$$\therefore \frac{a^p - a}{p} = (q - q') \text{ or } \frac{(a^{p-1} - 1) \cdot a}{p} = (q - q'):$$

but a is not divisible by p; $\therefore$ $a^{p-1} - 1$ is so divisible. Hence, since $b^{p-1} - 1$ (b not being divisible by p) is divisible by p; $\therefore$ $(a^{p-1} - 1) - (b^{p-1} - 1)$ or $a^{p-1} - b^{p-1}$ is divisible by p *.

A very ingenious demonstration of this theorem has been inserted in a valuable periodical work, intitled Leyburn's Mathematical Repository, by Mr. Ivory.

Although $a^{p-1} - 1$ is divisible by p, yet a^{p-1} is not necessarily the least power of a; which, divided by p, leaves 1 a remainder. In M. Gauss's notation, $a^\lambda \equiv 1$ (modulus p), where λ can be less than $p - 1$; for instance, if a be 2, and the modulus p be 7, then $\frac{2^6}{7}$ or $\frac{64}{7} = 9 + \frac{1}{7}$, or 1 is a remainder, or $2^6 - 1$ is divisible by 7: but, if we take the 3d power of 2, or 8, then $2^3 - 1$ is divisible by 7. Again, if we take $a = 4$, then $4^3 - 1$ is divisible by 7, as well as $4^6 - 1$: but, if we take $a = 5$, then there is no power of a lower than the 6th, which, divided by 7, leaves the remainder 1.

It is to be observed that, in these instances, (in which $a = 2$, and 4,) the index of the least power of a, which divided by p leaves a remainder 1, is $\frac{1}{2}$ of $p - 1$; and *Euler* (*Novi Commentarii*, tom. VII. p. 69.) proved that, if $a^\lambda - 1$ is divisible by p, the exponent λ is a divisor of $p - 1$. This curious theorem has been demonstrated by M. Gauss, (pages 32, 33, &c.) who

* *Euler*'s second demonstration is contained in the 7th, and not in the 8th volume of the *Novi Comm.* as M. Gauss states.

shews that, when $a^{\lambda} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ $\frac{p-1}{\lambda}$ being a whole number, elevating a^{λ} to the power $\frac{p-1}{\lambda}$, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1$ (modulus p).

Several curious properties belong to powers of a, such as a^{λ}; many of which *Euler* has demonstrated, and which M. Gauss has applied with great skill and ingenuity to the solution of equations. If λ divides $p-1$, and $a^{\lambda}-1$ be divisible by p, a^{λ} being the least power of a which divided by p leaves the remainder $=1$, then the remainders of a, a^2, a^3—up to a^{λ} are all different; or, as M. Gauss would express it, the minima residua of a, a^2 &c. are different: for, suppose a^q, and a^{q^1}, (q, q^1 each $< \lambda$) to have the same remainder r, then $\frac{a^q}{p} = \mathfrak{Q} + \frac{r}{p}$

$$\frac{a^{q^1}}{p} = \mathfrak{Q}^1 + \frac{r}{p}$$

$$\therefore \frac{a^q - a^{q^1}}{p} = (\mathfrak{Q} - \mathfrak{Q}^1); \quad \text{or} \quad a^{q^1} \frac{(a^{(q-q^1)} - 1)}{p} = (\mathfrak{Q} - \mathfrak{Q}^1):$$

—but a^{q^1} is not divisible by p; $\therefore a^{(q-q^1)} - 1$ is divisible by p, which is absurd; for, by supposition, a^{λ} is the least power of a which divided by p leaves the remainder 1; and since q, q^1 are each less than λ, $q - q^1 < \lambda$.

Hence, if a^{p-1} be equal to a^{λ}, or if a^{p-1} be the least power of a which divided by p leaves the remainder unity, then by the division of the powers of a, up to a^{p-1}, all the numbers from o to $\overline{p-1}$ are produced as remainders: for it has been proved that they are all different; and since the number is $\overline{p-1}$, the number of remainders is $\overline{p-1}$; or, in the language of the present author, the minima residua of the powers of a are, 1, 2, 3, 4, — — — — —$p-1$. Thus, if the modulus or divisor be 7, and a be equal to 5, the minima residua of

$$1,\ 5,\ 5^2,\ 5^3,\ 5^4,\ 5^5,\ 5^6$$
$$\text{are}\quad 1,\ 5,\ 4,\ 6,\ 2,\ 3,\ 1.$$

If λ be an aliquot part of $\overline{p-1}$, then, in the division of the powers

powers of a beyond a^λ by p, the remainders of a, a^2 &c. by p recur; for $a^\lambda + 1 = a^\lambda a$; $\therefore \frac{a^\lambda + 1}{p} = \frac{a^\lambda}{p} a$: but $\frac{a^\lambda}{p}$ leaves a remainder 1; $\therefore \frac{a^\lambda + 1}{p}$ leaves the same remainder as $\frac{a}{p}$, and hence the remainders recur: or, stated in M. Gauss's symbols,

$$a^\lambda + 1 \equiv a, \quad a^\lambda + \gamma \equiv a^\gamma \pmod{p}.$$

Whether or not the remainders that occur in the division of the powers of a by p be the series

1, 2, 3, &c. to $p-1$,

or only certain numbers in that series, depends on the peculiar value of a.

When a is such that, by the division of the powers of a by p, all the remainders are produced from 1 to $p-1$, then a is called a primitive root; which name was, we believe, first given by *Euler**. M. Gauss adopts the same denomination, and these *primitive* roots are of the greatest importance in the curious application which he has made of his theory to the inscription of polygons in a circle. If p be 19, and we search for a primitive root to 19, 2 is such root; and for the powers of 2, the indices of which are

0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18,

the minima residua are

1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 13, 7, 14, 9, 18, 17, 15, 11, 3, 6, 12, 5, 10, 1.

To this theorem of *Fermat*, the present author adds another, of which he says that this of *Fermat* is only a particular case. It is this: if p be a prime number, the power of the polynomial $a + b + c +$ &c. is $\equiv a^p + b^p + c^p +$ &c. according to the modulus p:—or, in ordinary language,

$(a+b+c+$ &c.$)^p - (a^p + b^p + c^p +$ &c.$)$ is divisible by p.

If we evolve $(a+b+c$ &c.$)^p$, and subtract $a^p + b^p$ &c. then the remainder is composed of terms as $Pa^\alpha b^\beta c^\gamma$.

Now *De Moivre* has proved, in the Philosophical Transactions, that the coefficient $P = \frac{1.2.3 \cdots p}{1.2.3 \cdots \alpha . 1.2.3 \cdots \beta . 1.2.3 \cdots \gamma}$;

but p being the number of permutations of p, and consequently a whole number, the numerator is divisible by the denominator;

* "*Hujusmodi radices progressionis geometricæ, quæ series residuorum completas producunt* primitivas *appellabo.*" *Novi Comm.* tom. XVIII. p. 89.

yet it is divisible by p, while the denominator is not divisible by p, being composed of factors less than p. In the 75th article, M. Gauss in his peculiar manner arrives at that remarkable property of numbers which Waring attributes to Wilson*; viz. if n be a prime number,

then $\frac{1.2.3.\cdots(n-2)\,(n-1)+1}{n}$ is an integral number.

For instance, let $n=5$, then

$$\frac{1\cdot 2\cdot 3\cdot 4+1}{5}=5$$

Let $n=7$, then $\frac{1\cdot 2\cdot 3\cdot 4\cdot 5\cdot 6+1}{7}=103$.

Waring remarks on this and other properties, "*Demonstrationes vero hujusmodi propositiones eo magis difficiles erunt, quod nulla fingi potest notatio quæ primum numerum exprimit.*" M. Gauss, after having noticed this observation, rather tartly remarks on it, '*pour nous, nous pensons que la démonstration de cette sorte de vérités doit etre puisée dans les principes plutot que dans la notation.*'

The theorem of Wilson has been demonstrated by *Lagrange* in the Berlin Memoirs for 1771, and by *Euler*. M. Gauss also demonstrates it, and then makes the theorem more general in the following manner. 'The product of all numbers prime, with a given number A, and less than that number, is congruous, according to A, to unity taken positively or negatively.'

When we were speaking of the remainders of the powers of a by p, we omitted to mention a very simple mode of determining the remainder of a^x divided by p; which *Euler* first gave, (*De Residuis ex divisione potestatum relictis*, p. 53. *Novi Comm.* tom. VII.; and which M. Gauss has improved.

Suppose $\frac{a^\lambda}{p}=q+\frac{r}{p}$, or $a^\lambda=pq+r$,

and $a^{\lambda'}=pq'+r'$,

then $a^{\lambda+\lambda'}=p^2qq'+p\,(rq'+r'q)+rr'$.

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* Wilson quitted abstract science for the law, and became a Judge. Waring, in the Preface to the *Meditationes*, thus speaks of him: "*Hoc opus moliebatur mecum, et in partes distribuebat eruditissimus vir Joannes Wilson armiger, et laboris quidem totius particeps fuisset, ni studia forensia quibus se dedit vetuissent: adjutore tali tantoque non sine magno et meo et rei mathematicæ damno carui: ab illius enim ingenio hæc scientiæ incrementa esset captura ab aliis, via aut ne vix quidem speranda.*"

Hence

Hence, $a^{\lambda+\lambda'}$ divided by p leaves a remainder rr'; and if $\lambda' = \lambda$, $a^{2\lambda}$, divided by p, leaves a remainder r^2; $\therefore$ putting $\lambda' = 2\lambda$, 3λ, &c. successively, the successive remainders of $a^{3\lambda}$, $a^{4\lambda}$, &c. are r^3, r^4, r^5, &c.

Suppose it were required to find the remainder of 7^{160} divided by 641; the first remainder of 7 by 641 is 7, &c. $\therefore$ the successive remainders of 7^2, 7^3, 7^4 will be 49, 343, 478; or, since $641-478=163$, we may express that remainder by its complement, prefixing a negative sign, thus -163. Similarly, the remainders of 7^8, 7^{16}, 7^{32}, 7^{64}, 7^{128}, will be 288, 255, 284, -110, -79; and since $7^{160} = 7^{128} \times 7^{32}$, the remainder of $7^{160} = -79 \cdot 284$, and the least remainder will be 640 or -1.

This method may be abridged: thus, suppose a^x to be the power of a which is to be divided by p, let a^λ be the power which divided by p leaves 1 as a remainder: make $x = n\lambda + \mu$, $\mu < \lambda$, then a^x divided by p has the same remainder as a^μ divided by p. For example: to find the remainder of 3^{1000} by 13; $1000 = 999 + 1 = 3\,(333) + 1$: but

$\frac{3^3}{13}$ leaves a remainder 1; $\therefore \frac{3^{3\,(333)}}{13}$ leaves remainder 1;

$\therefore 3^{1000} = 3^{999} \times 3$ divided by 13 leaves the same remainder as 3 does, or the remainder is 3. This amounts to the same as the 47th article of M. Gauss.

We must leave these and other curious matters, because, before we dismiss this work, we wish to draw the reader's attention to some very ingenious and admirable applications which the author has made of his theory. Section VI. is intitled *Application to different Researches*, but does not refer to the most interesting. It commences with simple applications; such as, if $m = a \times b$ (a and b being prime,) then $\frac{n}{m}$ may be resolved into two fractions, as $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b}$: for, since

$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = \frac{n}{m}$, $\therefore y = \frac{n - bx}{a}$: but y must be an integer. According to M. Gauss, $n \equiv bx$ (modulus a); and the result, as it is easy to see, agrees with the common and ordinary method, that which is given in the second volume of *Euler's* Algebra.

From this proposition, it follows that, if $m = a.b.c.d.$ &c. $\frac{n}{m}$ may be resolved into $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{N}{b\,c\,d\,\&c.}$

and $\therefore$ into $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{N'}{c\,d\,\&c.}$

and $\therefore$ into $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} + \&c.$

Hence, if an angle $A = \frac{n}{m}, 2\pi$, (2π being the circumference,) A may be resolved into $2\pi.x + \frac{2\pi.y}{b} + 2\pi.\frac{z}{c}$ &c.

Our preceding comments have been purposely directed to those properties of numbers that are connected with *Fermat's* theorem, since they will serve to elucidate that which we chiefly wish to elucidate, viz. M. Gauss's seventh section relative to equations that determine circular sections; and we perfectly agree with the author, when he remarks 'that the reader will be astonished to meet with such a research, in a work consecrated to a doctrine that at first sight appears absolutely heterogeneous.'

If we take the equation $x^n - 1 = 0$, we may, as Cotes and *De Moivre* have done, resolve it into quadratic factors; and thence we may generally exhibit one of the roots (r) under this form:

$$r = \cos.\frac{k\,P}{n} + i\,\sin.\frac{k\,P}{n},$$

k being a number of the progression, 1, 2, 3 — — $n-1$; P being the circumference of the circle; and i being the imaginary root of the equation $x^2 + 1 = 0$.

Since the quadratic factor is of the form $x^2 - 2\cos.\frac{\theta}{n}x + 1$, the second root must be $\frac{1}{r}$.

Hence $\frac{1}{r} = \cos.\frac{k.P}{n} - i.\,\sin.\frac{k\,P}{n}$.

Hence $r + \frac{1}{r}$ or $\frac{1+r^2}{r} = 2\cos.\frac{k.P}{n}$.

$$r - \frac{1}{r} \text{ or } \frac{r^2-1}{r} = 2\,i.\,\sin.\frac{k\,P}{n}$$

and

and hence, if we can determine a root, as r, we are able to assign the sine and cosine of $\frac{kP}{n}$.

Let n be a prime odd number; then $x^n - 1 = 0$ has a single real root 1. Divide $x^n - 1$ by $x - 1$, and the resulting equation,

$$x^{n-1} + x^{n-2} + x^{n-3} \text{ \&c. } + a + 1 = 0 \quad (X)$$

contains the remaining $n - 1$ roots.

If r be a root of this equation, then it is a root of $x^n - 1$; $\therefore r^n = 1$, $r^{2n} = 1$, and generally $r^{sn} = 1$, s being a whole number: but, since r^{2n}, r^{3n}, &c. are equal to $(r^2)^n$, $(r^3)^n$, it is clear that r^0, r^1, $r^2 \ldots r^{n-1}$ represent the roots of the equation $x^n - 1 = 0$; and consequently that r^e, r^{2e}, r^{3e}, &c. $\ldots r^{(n-1)e}$ will coincide with the roots of the equation X.

Hence $r^e + r^{2e} + r^{3e} + \text{ \&c. } + r^{(n-1)e} = -1$.

Since r is a root of $xn - 1$, and the other roots are powers of r, if we multiply several roots together the product is r^λ, where $\lambda < n$, since the index of r may be reduced: for $r^{n+2} = r^n r^2 = r^2$. Hence if any function of indeterminate quantities, as t, u, &c. were evolved, and the terms were of this form, $Mt^a . u^b$, &c. then, by substituting for t, u, roots of $x^n - 1$, the term would become $M r^\lambda$; another term, as $M' t^c u^d$ &c. would beccome $M' r^{\lambda'}$; and so on: so that the evolved function, or collection of terms, would assume this form,

$$A + A'r + A''r^2 \ldots + A^{(\nu)} r^{n-1}.$$

If, instead of the simple powers of the roots, we substitute the second, third, &c. and m^{th} powers, then the preceding series would become:

$$A + A' r^2 + A'' r^4 + \text{ \&c.}$$

$$A + A' r^m + A' r^{2m} + \text{ \&c.}$$

the coefficients A, A,′ A″ &c. remaining the same,

This being premised, we shall now state the object of M. Gauss's investigations; and since the exposition of the general theory, in all its parts, would lead us far beyond our boundaries, we must be contented if we succeed in making plain and sensible the spirit of his method by examples.

In the equation $x^n - 1 = 0$, suppose $n = 19$: then the equation X, or $x^{18} + x^{17} + \text{ \&c.}$ is of 18 dimensions, or has 18 roots; and these 18 roots may be divided into three periods, containing

containing 6 roots each. Again, each period of 6 roots may be divided into three periods of 2 roots each. By the solution of a cubic equation, the sums of the three periods of six terms are to be determined: then, by the solution of a second cubic equation, the sums of the periods containing two terms each are to be determined; and finally, by the solution of a quadratic, the roots contained in the periods containing two terms are to be determined. Having obtained two roots by the solution of a quadratic, the remaining 16 roots may be determined by the solution of eight similar quadratics.

M. Gauss uses a particular notation for the periods, and for the roots contained in them. The roots, r, r^2, r^3, &c. he represent thus, [1], [2], [3], and generally r^λ by $[\lambda]$. Now the roots are r r^2, &c. up to r^{n-1}: but is there any other way of representing them? We must recollect what has been said of primitive roots: a primitive root is that, the powers of which up to $n-1$ divided by n leaves the remainders 1, 2, 3. - - $n-1$, although not in that order. Let g be such primitive root, then the numbers 1, g, g^2 - - g^{n-2} divided by n leave remainders, 1, 2, 3 - - $n-1$, (though not in that order): consequently the roots r^1, r^9, r^{9^2}, &c. coincide with the roots r, r^2, r^3 &c.: for, suppose $\frac{g^\mu}{n}$ to equal $q+\frac{\varrho}{n}$, then $g^\mu = nq+\varrho$;

$\therefore r^{g^\mu} = r^{nq+\varrho} = r^{nq} \times r^\varrho$ (since $r^{nq} = 1$) $= r^\varrho$; and since $\varrho < n$, ϱ is a number included in the series of numbers, 1,2,3 - - $n-1$. Hence, more generally, the root, which is r, raised to a power the index of which is $\lambda 9^\varsigma$, coincides with one of the roots, r, r^2, r^3, &c.

According to the value of n, g must be taken; and it has in a previous part been shewn that, if $n=19$, g or a primitive root is 2. On the properties of these primitive roots, almost the whole of M. Gauss's process depends.

Make $\overline{n-1} = ef$, and let $g^e = h$: if $f = n-1$, then $e=1$, and the powers of g coincide with those of h. If f in our instance $= 6$, and $n=19$, $e=3$, $\therefore h^0$, h, h^2, h^3——h^5 correspond to g^0, g^3, g^5, ——g^{15}. Suppose the sum of f roots to be thus denoted, $(f, \lambda,)$ or that $(f, \lambda,)$ stands for the collection of roots

$$[\lambda]\ [\lambda h]\ \text{&c. to}\ \left[\lambda h^{f-1}\right];$$

and consequently, in our instance of $n=19$, (18, 1) will stand for the collection of roots of which the indices are

1, g, g^2, &c.—g^{17},
or 1, h, h^2 - - h^{17}.

Again,

Again, if $f=6$, then $e=3$, and (6, 1) will stand for the collection of roots of which the indices are,

$$1,\ 2^3,\ 2^6,\ 2^9,\ 2^{12},\ 2^{15},$$

since $g=2$ and $e=3$.

These indices, however, admit of reduction, since we must find their minima residua, or their remainders < 19, when they are divided by 19. Now the remainders of 1 and 8 are 1 and 8; the remainder of 2^6, or 64 divided by 19, is 7; the minimum residuum of 2^9 is 18; and the remaining residua 11 and 12; hence the period denoted by (6, 1) will contain the roots

$$r,\ r^7,\ r^8,\ r^{11},\ r^{12},\ r^{18}.$$

The general form for the collection of 6 roots being $(6, \lambda)$ where λ is an integer, if we put $\lambda=2$, then the period (6, 2) is composed of roots of which the indices are

$$2,\ 2.2^3,\ 2.2^6,\ \&c. \text{———} 2.2^{15}.$$

Finding the minima residua by dividing by 19, these residua are

$$2,\ 16,\ 14,\ 17,\ 3,\ 5,$$

or the period (6, 2) contains the roots

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If we now put $\lambda=3$, the first root of the period (6, 3,) will be $r3$, which root was contained in the preceding period; therefore, (which is easily proved,) all the roots of the period (6, 3) are the same as the roots in the period (6, 2).

If we put $\lambda=4$, then, by proceeding as we have done in the two former instances, the period (6, 4) will contain the roots

$$r4,\ r^6,\ r9,\ r^{10},\ r^{13},\ r^{15};$$

and hence the roots of $x^{18}+x^{17}+$ &c. are contained in these three periods; and every other period $(6, \lambda)$ can be reduced to one of them.

The first division of the 18 roots, we have said, is to be made into three periods of 6 terms each; and the cubic equation, whose roots are the sums (6, 1), (6, 2,) (6, 4), is to be solved. Let the roots be p, p' p'', and the equation $x^3 - Ax^2 + Bx - C=0$; then $A=p+p'+p''=(6, 1)+(6, 2)+(6, 4)=$ sum of 18 roots$=(18, 1)$: but, since $x^{18}+x^{17}+$ &c. $-+1=0$, $\therefore r^{18}+r^{17}$ &c.$=-1$. Again, $B=pp'+pp''+p'p''$. Now to facilitate the formation of these quantities, M. Gauss gives this theorem; if the roots of a period (f, λ) be λ, λ', λ'', &c. then the product of (f, λ) with another similar period is

$$=(f, \lambda+\mu)+(f, \lambda'+\mu)+(f, \lambda''+\mu)+\&c.\ (a).$$

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containing 6 roots each. Again, each period of 6 roots may be divided into three periods of 2 roots each. By the solution of a cubic equation, the sums of the three periods of six terms are to be determined: then, by the solution of a second cubic equation, the sums of the periods containing two terms each are to be determined; and finally, by the solution of a quadratic, the roots contained in the periods containing two terms are to be determined. Having obtained two roots by the solution of a quadratic, the remaining 16 roots may be determined by the solution of eight similar quadratics.

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In

containing 6 roots each. Again, each period of 6 roots may be divided into three periods of 2 roots each. By the solution of a cubic equation, the sums of the three periods of six terms are to be determined: then, by the solution of a second cubic equation, the sums of the periods containing two terms each are to be determined; and finally, by the solution of a quadratic, the roots contained in the periods containing two terms are to be determined. Having obtained two roots by the solution of a quadratic, the remaining 16 roots may be determined by the solution of eight similar quadratics.

M. Gauss uses a particular notation for the periods, and for the roots contained in them. The roots, r, r^2, r^3, &c. he represent thus, [1], [2], [3], and generally r^λ by $[\lambda]$. Now the roots are r r^2, &c. up to r^{n-1}: but is there any other way of representing them? We must recollect what has been said of primitive roots: a primitive root is that, the powers of which up to $n-1$ divided by n leaves the remainders 1, 2, 3. - - $n-1$, although not in that order. Let g be such primitive root, then the numbers 1, g, g^2 - - g^{n-2} divided by n leave remainders, 1, 2, 3 - - $n-1$, (though not in that order): consequently the roots r^1, r^9, r^{9^2}, &c. coincide with the roots r, r^2, r^3 &c.: for, suppose $\frac{g^\mu}{n}$ to equal $q+\frac{\varrho}{n}$, then $g^\mu = nq+\varrho$;

$\therefore r^{g^\mu} = r^{nq+\varrho} = r^{nq} \times r^\varrho$ (since $r^{nq} = 1$) $= r^\varrho$; and since $\varrho < n$, ϱ is a number included in the series of numbers, 1,2,3 - - $n-1$. Hence, more generally, the root, which is r, raised to a power the index of which is $\lambda 9^\nu$, coincides with one of the roots, r, r^2, r^3, &c.

According to the value of n, g must be taken; and it has in a previous part been shewn that, if $n=19$, g or a primitive root is 2. On the properties of these primitive roots, almost the whole of M. Gauss's process depends.

Make $\overline{n-1} = ef$, and let $g^e = h$: if $f = n-1$, then $e = 1$, and the powers of g coincide with those of h. If f in our instance $= 6$, and $n=19$, $e=3$, $\therefore h^0$, h, h^2, h^3——h^5 correspond to g^0, g^3, g^5, ——g^{15}. Suppose the sum of f roots to be thus denoted, $(f, \lambda,)$ or that $(f, \lambda,)$ stands for the collection of roots

$$[\lambda]\ [\lambda h]\ \&c.\ \text{to}\ \left[\lambda h^{f-1}\right];$$

and consequently, in our instance of $n=19$, (18, 1) will stand for the collection of roots of which the indices are

1, g, g^2, &c.—g^{17},
or 1, h, h^2 - - h^{17}.

Again,

Again, if $f=6$, then $e=3$, and (6, 1) will stand for the collection of roots of which the indices are,

$$1,\ 2^3,\ 2^6,\ 2^9,\ 2^{12},\ 2^{15},$$

since $g=2$ and $e=3$.

These indices, however, admit of reduction, since we must find their minima residua, or their remainders <19, when they are divided by 19. Now the remainders of 1 and 8 are 1 and 8; the remainder of 2^6, or 64 divided by 19, is 7; the minimum residuum of 2^9 is 18; and the remaining residua 11 and 12; hence the period denoted by (6, 1) will contain the roots

$$r,\ r^7,\ r^8,\ r^{11},\ r^{12},\ r^{18}.$$

The general form for the collection of 6 roots being $(6, \lambda)$ where λ is an integer, if we put $\lambda=2$, then the period (6, 2) is composed of roots of which the indices are

$$2,\ 2.2^3,\ 2.2^6,\ \&c. \text{———} 2.2^{15}.$$

Finding the minima residua by dividing by 19, these residua are

$$2,\ 16,\ 14,\ 17,\ 3,\ 5,$$

or the period (6, 2) contains the roots

$$r^2,\ r^3,\ r^5,\ r^{14},\ r^{16},\ r^{17}.$$

If we now put $\lambda=3$, the first root of the period (6, 3,) will be $r3$, which root was contained in the preceding period; therefore, (which is easily proved,) all the roots of the period (6, 3) are the same as the roots in the period (6, 2).

If we put $\lambda=4$, then, by proceeding as we have done in the two former instances, the period (6, 4) will contain the roots

$$r4,\ r^6,\ r9,\ r^{10},\ r^{13},\ r^{15};$$

and hence the roots of $x^{18}+x^{17}+$ &c. are contained in these three periods; and every other period $(6, \lambda)$ can be reduced to one of them.

The first division of the 18 roots, we have said, is to be made into three periods of 6 terms each; and the cubic equation, whose roots are the sums (6, 1), (6, 2,) (6, 4), is to be solved. Let the roots be p, p' p'', and the equation $x^3 - Ax^2 + Bx - C=0$; then $A=p+p'+p''=(6, 1)+(6, 2)+(6, 4)=$ sum of 18 roots$=(18, 1)$: but, since $x^{18}+x^{17}+$ &c. $-+1=0$, $\therefore$ $r^{18}+r^{17}$ &c.$=-1$. Again, $B=pp'+pp''+p'p''$. Now to facilitate the formation of these quantities, M. Gauss gives this theorem; if the roots of a period (f, λ) be λ, λ', λ'', &c. then the product of (f, λ) with another similar period is

$$=(f, \lambda+\mu)+(f, \lambda'+\mu)+(f, \lambda''+\mu)+\&c.\ (a).$$

In

In our instance, $p = (6, 1)$, and the roots of $(6, 2)$ are, 2, 3, 5, 14, 16, 17.

Hence, if we take $\mu = 1$,

$$\lambda + \mu, = 2 + 1, \lambda' + 1 = 3 + 1;$$

and the following sums will be evidently 6, 15, 17, 18: hence $(6, 1) \times (6, 2) =$

$$(6, 3) + (6, 4) + (6, 6) + (6, 15) + (6, 17) + (6, 18)$$

but the periods $(6, 6)$, $(6, 15)$ are the same as the period $(6, 4)$, since $[6]$ and $[15]$ are roots of that period; and $(6, 3)$ $(6, 17)$ are the same as the period $(6, 2)$: hence $(6, 1,) \times (6, 2)$ or $pp' = p + 2p' + 3p''$.

Precisely in the same way it is proved that

$$pp'' = 2p + p'' + 3p', p'p'' = 3p + p' + 2p''$$

and consequently we have

$$B = 6(p + p' + p'') = -6.$$

In order to form $C = pp'p'''$,

since $pp' = (6, 1) + 2(6, 2) + 3(6, 4)$,

we must according to the preceding theorem (a) combine $(6, 1)$ 2 $(6, 2)$ 3 $(6, 4)$ with every one of the roots of p''' or 6, 4; and then, by collecting like periods, we shall have

$$C = 11(p + p' + p'') + 3.(6.19)$$
$$= 11(18.1) + 3.(6.0)$$

but evidently according to the definition given of (f, λ), $(6, \sigma)$ is equal to the sum of roots of which the indices are o, oh, oh^2 &c. consequently, $= r^0 + r^0 +$ &c. $- = 6$.

Hence, since $(18, 1) = -1$, $C = 18 - 11 = 7$.

Hence the Equation becomes

$$x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 7 = 0 - (A);$$

and one of the roots of this equation is $= -1,221876$. If $(6, 1)$ be represented by this root, then $(6, 2)$, $(6, 4)$ may be thence deduced, and this by a most dextrous application which M. Gauss has made of the theorem (a); for since such theorem assigns the form for the developement of (f, μ), (f, λ), it assigns also the form for the developement of $(f, \lambda)^2$ $(f, \lambda)^3$ &c. Hence, since (retaining the notation p, p', p'') p^2, p^3, &c. can be expressed in terms involving p' p'', by elimination we may express p', p'' in terms involving p, p^2, &c. In the instance which we have used, $1 + p + p' + p'' = 0$, since $1 + r + r^2 +$ &c. $- r^{18} = 0$, and consequently $p = -(1 + p' + p'')$; hence pp or $p^2 = 6 + 2p + p' + 2p'$; and thence by elimination,

$$p' = 4 - p^2, p'' = -5 - p + p^2.$$

Hence

Hence $(6, 2) = 4 - (6,1)^2$, $(6, 4) = -5 - (6,1) + (6, 1)^2$ &c.

∴ substituting numerically for (6. 1)

$(6, 2) = 2{,}507018$ &c. $(6, 4) = -2.285142$ &c. With these three values, we are able immediately to resolve the equation $x^{18} +$ &c. of 18 degrees, into 3 equations of 6 dimensions each:—but we proceed to the resolution of the (6, 1) into other periods.

Now (6, 1) may be resolved into three periods of two terms each, which will be (2, 1), $(2, 2^3)$, $(2, 2^6)$: but since the minima residua of $2 = 8$ and $2^6 = 64$ are 8 and 7, these periods are more simply expressed by

$$(2, 1), (2, 7) (2, 8).$$

By what means shall we form the equation of which the roots are (2, 1), (2, 7) (2, 8)? Exactly as we formed the other cubic equation. Let these periods be denoted by q, q', q'' and let the cubic equation (B) be $x^3 - Ax^2 + Bx - C = 0$, then $(q + q' + q'') = (6, 1)$; form qq' by combining the period (2, 1) with the roots of (2, 7), which roots are [7] and [18], and similarly qq'', $q'q''$: then by adding them together we shall have $B = (6, 1) + (6, 4) = -1.\ 22187$ &c. $+ - 2.28514 = -3.50701$ &c, and in like manner we may form $C = 2 + (6, 2) = 4.\ 50701$ &c. So that the equation, the roots of which are the sums (2, 1) (2, 7), (2, 8), becomes

$$x^3 + 1{,}2218 \text{ &c. } x^2 - 3{,}5070 \text{ &c. } x - 45070 \text{ &c. } = 0.$$

By the solution of this cubic, we find a root $= -1{,}354563$ &c. and representing the period (2, 1) by it, following a method the same as that by which p', p'' were expressed in a series of terms involving p^2, p^3, &c. we shall obtain the several values of the periods

$$(2, 2) (2, 4) (2, 6) \text{ &c. } \text{——} (2, 9)$$

We have now reduced the periods to consit of two terms, and the 18 roots are separated into nine periods of two terms each.

The period (2, 1,) contains the two roots of which the indices are 1 and 2^9, or 1 and 512: but the division of 512 by 19 leaves the remainder 18, or the minimum residuum of 29 is 18: hence, if we assume the quadratic equation $x^2 - Ax + B$, we have $A = (2, 1)$, $B = [1, 19] = 1$. Hence, solving the quadratic equation $x^2 - (2,1)x + 1 = 0$, or $x^2 + 1{,}3545$ &c. $x + 1 = 0$; and using, as before, i to denote $\sqrt{-1}$, we have

$$x = -0{,}677281 \text{ &c. } \pm 0{,}735723\, i;$$

and the remaining 16 roots may be deduced either from the elevation of one of these roots r, or by the solution of 8 quadratic equations similar to

$$x^2 - (2, 1)\, x + 1 = 0.$$

Hence

Hence the equation $x^{9}-1=0$ is completely resolved, and thence the division of the circle into n parts is effected. In the preceding instance, since $18=2.3.3.$ the resolution required the solution of two cubical equations and of one quadratic. If we take $n=17$, then $n-1=16=2.2.2.2.$; and hence the solution of $x^{17}-1=0$ may be accomplished similarly to the preceding manner, by the solution of four equations of the second degree. This, then, is a more simple case than the preceding; and, after M. Gauss, we shall now subjoin the successive distribution of the 16 roots into their several periods:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\left.\begin{array}{l}(2,1) \quad [1],\ [16]\\ (2,13) \quad [4],\ [13]\end{array}\right\}(4,1)\\
\left.\begin{array}{l}(2,9) \quad [8],\ [9]\\ (2,15) \quad [2],\ [15]\end{array}\right\}(4,9)
\end{array}\right\}(8,1)\\
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\left.\begin{array}{l}(2,3) \quad [8],\ [14]\\ (2,5) \quad [5],\ [12]\end{array}\right\}(4,3)\\
\left.\begin{array}{l}(2,10) \quad [7],\ [10]\\ (2,11) \quad [6],\ [11]\end{array}\right\}(4,10)
\end{array}\right\}(8,3)
\end{array}\right\}16,1
$$

We know scarcely any part of analysis, that presents us with a process derived from such refined principles, or conducted with so much exactness and dexterity, as the preceding. It indeed excites our admiration, and we still continue to wonder at the almost miraculous aid which the abstract properties of the number n and its primitive roots have contributed in this investigation: for without these properties, the successive distribution of the roots into periods would have been impracticable.

In our preceding summary we have chiefly confined our attention and directed our explanation to an instance; for in this case, especially, an instance most clearly shews the spirit of the method: but M. Gauss has by several theorems given a formal and scientific construction to his theory, and that is shewn to be true generally which we have shewn to be feasible in a specific instance.

M. Gauss, then, in this application of his theory, reduces the division of the circle into n parts, (when n is a prime number,) to the solution of as many equations as there are factors in the number $n-1$; the degrees of which factors depend on the magnitude of the factors. When $n-1$ is a power of 2, which happens for the values of n,

$$3,\ 5,\ 7,\ 257,\ 65537,\ \&c.$$

then the division of the circle is reduced to equations of the second dimensions only, and in these cases the description of a regular

a regular polygon of n sides may be performed by geometrical constructions. 'It is (says the author) surprizing that, the division of the circle into three and five parts having been known in the time of Euclid, nothing should have been added to these discoveries in an interval of 2000 years; and that all mathematicians should have announced it as certain that, excepting these divisions and the divisions dependent on them, no other could be effected by geometrical constructions.'

The numerical values of n, which conduct to equations of the second degree only, are contained in the form

$$2^{2^{\nu}} + 1 :$$

thus, if $\nu = 0$; 1, 2, 3 &c. the numbers are 3, 5, 17, 257: but all the numbers produced by assigning different values to ν conduct not to a geometrical division of the circle; since the above formula does not, as *Fermat* asserted, contain numbers *necessarily prime numbers*. *Euler* first shewed that the formula was defective, since if $\nu = 5$, $2^{\nu} = 2^5 = 32$, and $2^{32} + 1 = 4294967297$, which is divisible by 641.

We have now exhibited some of the excellent and interesting disquisitions contained in the present volume. It were but small and inadequate praise, to say that the author every where shews himself to be an adroit and able mathematician. He has higher claims to distinction, and deserves rank for the originality of his researches. His inventions may not be immediately useful, nor may they seem to tend towards utility: but they are singularly curious, interesting, and unexpected; and they are derived from sources with which we should previously have pronounced that they could have no connection.

The minor praise of perspicuity, however, and of happy arrangement, M. Gauss neither deserves nor has endeavoured to obtain; for he tells us more than once that, for the sake of expedition, he purposely leaves parts unexplained, and without demonstration: but the reader, in the perusal, will also frequently recognise, after some unpleasant and toilsome exertion of his intellect, that many of the processes have an obscurity and perplexity not necessarily belonging to their object. Whoever will compare *Euler's* reasonings with those of M. Gauss, when, which is often the case, they are employed on the same speculation, must be struck with the manifest superiority of the former mathematician in regard to simplicity and clearness of demonstration. Some allowance must, however, be made for the perplexity incidental to new names and new signs.

Though this article is by no means of contracted dimensions, it leaves many interesting parts of the work unnoticed. In-

deed, the structure of M. GAUSS is so extensive, and possesses so many compartments, that a specific examination of each is impossible: we have generally described its plan, and exhibited one room,—that which in our judgment is the most curious and important.

R.W.

ART. XIII. *Almanach des Gourmands*, &c.; *i. e.* The Epicures' Almanack, or Guide to the Methods of Good Living. By an old Amateur. 4th and 5th Years. 12mo. Paris. 1806 and 1807. De Boffe, London. Price 3s. sewed each.

ART. XIV. *Le Cuisinier Impérial*, &c.; *i. e.* The Imperial Cook, or the Art of Cookery, and of making Pastry, adapted to all Classes; with different Receipts for making Preserves, and the Mode of supplying a Table with from twenty to sixty Covers. By A. VIARD. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 9s. sewed.

IT is remarked, in this *Gourmand*'s Almanac, that the *entrées*, or substantial dishes, may be compared to the principal apartments on the first floor of a large hotel, the *entremets* to elegant attics, and the *hors-d'œuvres* to the decorated closets, *boudoirs*, and recesses, which augment the effect of the distribution and complete the beauty of the apartment; yet we find that the true Glutton regards these *hors-d'œuvres* as adding to the decoration rather than to the excellence of a dinner: though the ladies are partial to these relishing bagatelles, which, from custom, can now be no more omitted than rouge by a beautiful woman. As eating is a science, it is contended that guests should be drilled to the exercise of the knife and fork, and be cautious to avoid those aukwardnesses by which the arrangement of the table is often disturbed, and a party is not a little incommoded.

The 'Rambles of a *Gourmand* through Paris' advertise where the several articles of good living are to be procured, with the names of the venders. With respect to wines and *liqueurs*, that capital offers a splendid variety. The sprightly report of the old Amateur concludes with some humorous verses in mock commendation of a deceased Epicure.

From *the Imperial Cook*, we have abundance of receipts, but no wit; and they who wish to study the kitchen department in a French family may consult this work, we should suppose, with advantage: but we should inform them that they must procure other aids for comprehending it than ordinary French Dictionaries.

Mo-y.